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July 1966

INTELLIGENCE HANDBOOK
FOR
SPECIAL OPERATIONS
SOMALI REPUBLIC

SOMALI REPUBLIC

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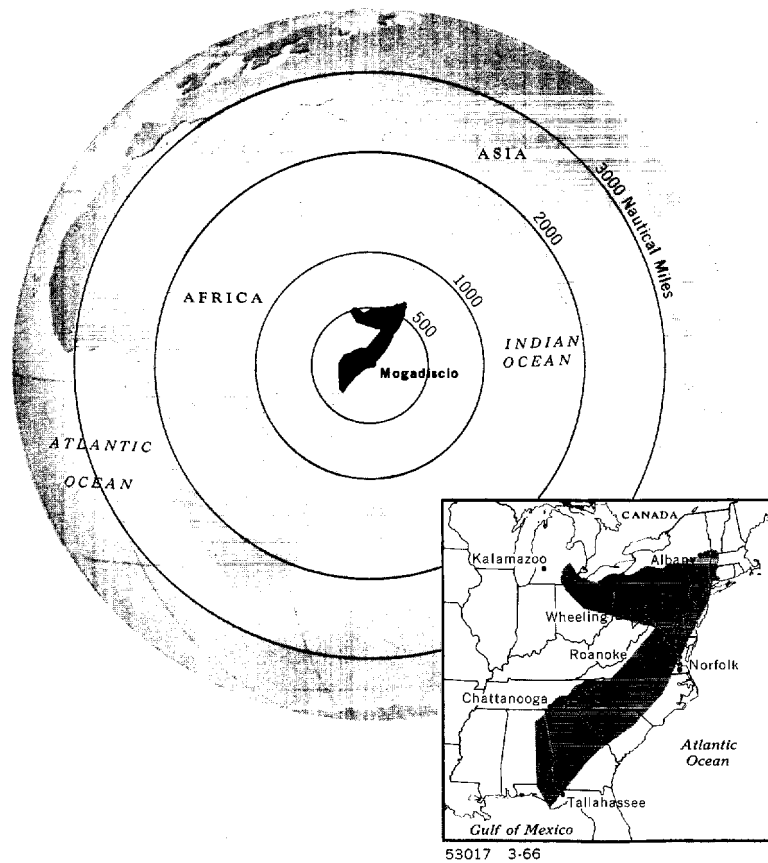
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W A R N I N G

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SOMALI REPUBLIC LOCATION AND COMPARATIVE AREAS



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INTELLIGENCE HANDBOOK
FOR
SPECIAL OPERATIONS
SOMALI REPUBLIC



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FOREWORD

This Handbook, prepared by area and topical specialists, is concerned specifically with those elements of the Somali environment which must be considered in planning counter-insurgency, civic action, and allied activities. The emphasis throughout is on information needed for such special operations; it is not an all-inclusive basic intelligence document. The NIS General Survey, Somali Republic, July 1966 and other NIS chapters may be referred to for additional background information.

The Handbook is not geared to support any specific operation or any particular type of special operation. Rather, it emphasizes operational essentials to which current details must be added immediately prior to any operation.

The cutoff date for material contained in this Handbook is 31 May 1966.

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I. Introduction

The material contained in this chapter is essentially a condensation of material to be found in the NIS General Survey, Somali Republic, July 1966.

The Somali Republic, located in the remote, largely barren Horn of Africa, is a fairly stable but still underdeveloped nation. The territory, which as the Somali Republic won independence in 1960, was formed by the union of the former British and Italian Somalilands. It gave little promise of early success as a national entity. Somali politicians, however, have combined a native political acumen with traditional egalitarian and democratic ways to balance internal divisive factors. The homogeneity of the inhabitants, who share the same language, the same Muslim religion, and a strong sense of ethnic identity contributes to the sense of national unity.

Somalia's outward homogeneity is one of its strengths but is also one of its major ills. The fact that not all Somalis were united under one flag at independence is Somalia's single greatest problem today. The goal of the unification of all Somalis dominates the country's foreign policy, and pursuit of it provokes hostilities with Somalia's neighbors, diverts the resources and energies of its leaders, and slows the economic and social development of the country.

Somalia is one of the poorest of African countries, and receives much foreign assistance. Between 1960 and 1965 Somalia received over US \$200 million in loans and grants from non-Communist and Communist countries. The Soviet Union plays the lead role among the Communist nations represented in Somalia and has offered substantial economic and defense assistance.

Somali claims to a "Greater Somalia" that would include the Somali-inhabited territory in Ethiopia, French Somaliland, and Kenya, and the strong presence of the Soviet Union in Somalia through its economic and military aid programs are factors which tend to keep the Horn of Africa a tense and troubled area. Further, the limited impact modern ways have made on Somali life makes the development of Somalia more difficult. The modern Western type of government, with its hierarchy of political authority, is basically alien to the traditional Somali way of life that emphasizes egalitarianism and individualism. A solution to the problem of transferring primary, traditional allegiances and loyalties from the clan to the nation is indispensable to future growth and development.

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II. Historical Background

A. Chronology

This chronology is essentially the chronology to be found in the NIS General Survey, Somali Republic, July 1966.

- 1827 - Britain signs treaties with the Somalis to acquire
1840 unrestricted harbouring facilities for ships of the East India Company.

- 1884 - The British occupy the northern Somali ports of Zeila,
1887 Berbera, and Bulhar and conclude a series of treaties with various Somali tribes guaranteeing British protection.

- 1884, Britain, France, Italy, and Ethiopia define the inland
1894, boundaries of the British Protectorate.
1897

- 1889 The Sultan of Zanzibar places his domains along the Indian Ocean coast of Somalia under the protection of Italy.

- 1927 Italians complete their occupation.

- 1940 British Somaliland is invaded and occupied by Italian forces from Ethiopia.

- 1941 British recapture British Somaliland and occupy Italian Somaliland.

- 1947 Italy renounces all rights and title to Italian Somaliland.

- 1949 The United Nations General Assembly agrees to permit Italy to administer former Italian Somaliland as a UN Trust Territory and prepare it for independence in ten years.

- 1956 The first elected Legislative Assembly is established in the UN Trust Territory of Somalia.

- 1957 The first Legislative Council is established in British Somaliland.

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- 1960 On 1 July, British Somaliland and the Italian administered UN Trust Territory unite and become independent as the Somali Republic.
- 1961 In June the Somali constitution approved in a nationwide referendum. Aden Abdulla Osman elected first president of the Somali Republic by the National Assembly in July.
Somalia signs \$52 million economic aid agreement with the Soviet Union.
An attempted military coup d'etat by junior army officers is crushed in Hargeisa in December.
- 1963 In March the Somali Government breaks diplomatic relations with the UK over the UK's refusal to recognize Somali claims to Kenya's Somali-inhabited Northeastern Province.
During the summer of 1963, insurgent Somali tribesmen in the eastern quarter of Ethiopia stage the most serious uprising against Ethiopia since World War II. On 10 October the Somali Council of Ministers rejects an offer of military aid from the US, Italy, and West Germany and approves a US \$35 million arms program with the Soviet Union.
- 1964 Continued Somali guerrilla activity in Ethiopia leads to clashes in February between regular Somali and Ethiopian troops.
The Somali Youth League continues to dominate Somali politics by winning the national elections in March. Abdirazak Hagi Hussen is appointed prime minister by President Aden but fails to get a vote of confidence from parliament. He heads a caretaker government until finally approved by parliament in September.
- 1965 President Aden visits Communist China in July.

B. History

The Somali Republic became a political entity in July 1960 when the British Protectorate of Somaliland was united with the UN Trust Territory of Somalia under Italian administration (formerly Italian Somaliland). The original inhabitants of the Somali Republic were members of various nomadic Hamitic groups, who mingled, particularly in the coastal regions, with Arab migrants from the Arabian peninsula. In the 7th century A.D. an Arab Sultanate was founded at the northern coastal town of Zeila. During the 16th century the

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Portuguese landed in the Somali territories to carry out trading activities. They ruled some of the towns on the coast but were driven out in the 17th century. Later, the Sultan of Zanzibar came to control most of the region. As a result of their extensive historic contacts with the Arabs, the Somalis are Muslims.

Extensive European contacts with the Horn of Africa began in the late 19th century, when the opening of the Suez Canal focused attention upon the area's strategic importance, and various European powers began to seek trade and otherwise establish themselves in the Horn. By the end of the century the Horn had been partitioned among Britain, France, Italy, and Ethiopia. Britain and Italy were established as the two dominant powers in the region that now comprises the Somali Republic.

British interest stemmed largely from the desire of the East India Company for a place to harbor their vessels without restriction. For this purpose, treaties were concluded with the Sultan of Tadjoura as early as 1840. The Egyptians also claimed jurisdiction over the northern Somali coast, and it was not until 1884, when Egyptian garrisons were withdrawn from the area, that the British initiated treaties with other Somali chiefs guaranteeing British protection. The boundary between Ethiopia and British Somaliland was established by treaty in 1897, an arrangement that was deeply resented by the Somalis since it cut across traditional Somali grazing grounds. This situation remains an irritant to this day.

British interest in their Somali Protectorate was purely strategic. The Protectorate was viewed as an area to be controlled in order to safeguard the Suez Canal and other British Middle East interests. As a result, the British Government made no attempt to colonize their Somali territory, and undertook only minimal economic and social changes. Consequently, the traditional life of the Protectorate's nomadic population was relatively undisturbed. Such development projects as were started by the British were not introduced until the 1950's, when the territory began to experience a slow political awakening.

In 1885 Italy obtained commercial rights in the Horn from the Sultan of Zanzibar. In 1889 the Sultans of Obbia and the Miguirtinian Somalis concluded agreements placing their territories under Italy's protection. In the same year the Italians extended their protection to parts of what is now Benadir Region -- mainly around the towns of Uarsciech, Mogadiscio, Merca and Brava -- then held by the Sultan of Zanzibar.

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Italian influence predominated along the coast of the Horn of Africa from the Gulf of Aden in the north to Chisimaio in the south.

A year after an Italian occupation of the coast in 1891, the Sultan of Zanzibar and the British Government on the one hand, and Italy on the other, concluded an agreement whereby the Somali port cities, with a hinterland having a radius of from 6 to 10 miles from the coast, were leased to Italy for fifty years. In 1905, by agreement with the British, Italy purchased the coast from Uarsciech to Brava. Administration was assumed directly by the Italian Government, which gave the territory colonial status. From then on, the Italians gradually extended their control inland, completing their occupation in 1927. In 1924 the town and port of Chisimaio, which was then part of Kenya, was ceded to Italy by the British.

Italian control lasted until World War II. Two months after the Italian declaration of war on Britain in June 1940, Italian forces occupied British Somaliland. British forces began operations against the Italians shortly thereafter, and by February 1941 the greater part of Italian Somaliland was under British control. British administration of the ex-Italian colony lasted from 1941 to 1950.

Unlike the British, the Italians viewed their Somali colony as a territory to be settled and developed. Italian colonization and economic activity produced some social change among the indigenous population. The local Somalis were more exposed to Western ways than the inhabitants of British Somaliland. Resentment of Italian rule was a contributing factor to the awakening of Somali nationalism and to the earlier development of political movements in Italian Somaliland after World War II.

In the Peace Treaty of 1947 Italy renounced all claim to Italian Somaliland, and in September 1948 the major powers referred the question of its disposition to the General Assembly of the United Nations. On 21 November 1949 the General Assembly recommended that Italian Somaliland be placed under the International Trusteeship system for a period of ten years with Italy as the administering authority, after which the territory was to become independent.

During the 1950's British Somaliland was also making progress toward self-government. Elections were held in February 1960, and one of the first acts of the newly elected Somaliland legislature was to request the UK for independence so that it could unite with the Trust Territory when the latter

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became independent. The UK agreed and the Protectorate became independent on June 26, 1960. Four days later, on 1 July 1960, the two areas joined to form the Somali Republic.

Many observers doubted that the new Somali Republic could survive the numerous problems it faced. A paucity of natural resources, a population lacking in education and technical skills, perennial deficits in the budget, inexperience with a modern governmental system, and an unresolved boundary dispute with its traditional enemy Ethiopia all contributed to an image of instability. Antagonisms, rivalry, and jealousy arose between the two parts of the country, stemming from their different colonial pasts. After five years of independence most of these problems still await solution, although some progress has been made. The government has remained generally stable, and the country has been successful in securing foreign financial, military, and technical assistance with Italy, the United States, and the Soviet Union as the most important contributors. The five-year period has also been marked by Somalia's poor external relations with its immediate neighbors Kenya and Ethiopia over Somali efforts to unite Somali inhabitants of the two countries with the Somali Republic. Clashes between Somali and Ethiopian forces along their common border have taken place, and the Somali Government continues to encourage subversion among Kenyan and Ethiopian Somalis.

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III. Physical Geography

A. General

Somalia, the easternmost country of the Horn of Africa, occupies an area of 246,000 square miles, about the size of Texas. It has a long (1,800 mile) coastline bounded by the Gulf of Aden on the north and the Indian Ocean on the east. On the west Somalia has a common frontier with French Somaliland, Ethiopia, and Kenya.

The landscape of Somalia is remarkably uniform. Broad, rolling plains covered with grass and thornbush extend almost continuously from one end of the country to the other. The barren, rocky Northern Mountains present the only rugged terrain. The plains are covered by a maze of shallow streambeds, which usually are dry except during infrequent rainstorms. Only the Giuba River and part of the Scebeli River flow perennially, and most of the country's cultivated land is concentrated along the banks of these rivers and in the area between them (referred to in this chapter as the interrivers area). Throughout this part of Somalia, permanent settlements are numerous and many nomadic herdsman encamp during the dry periods when water and forage are not available elsewhere. In the rest of Somalia, where widely separated wells, springs, and waterholes provide the only permanent sources of water, the population is sparse and largely nomadic; permanent settlements are few and widely scattered.

The climate of Somalia is hot and dry most of the year. Generally two short rainy periods are separated by long droughts. During the rainy seasons the plains are lush and green, and wild game is abundant. Roads become quagmires, and streams may be choked with floodwaters. In these periods the nomadic Somalis with their large herds of camels, goats, sheep, or cattle (chiefly in the south) are found in the most remote areas. The drought seasons are periods of inactivity. Vegetation becomes dormant, grasses dry up, and thornbush loses its foliage. All seasonal streams and most waterholes and wells dry out. Wild animals migrate to wetter areas outside the country or to the few widely scattered permanent sources of water within the country. The Somali nomads with their herds retreat to the two large rivers or the widely scattered wells elsewhere in the country.

The main physical factors affecting operations in Somalia are the general lack of water throughout much of the year, the high temperatures, and the scanty vegetation that offers only poor concealment.

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Figure 1. Barren mudflat backed by a line of low sand dunes on coastal plain 31 miles southeast of Zeila ($10^{\circ}59'N$ $43^{\circ}38'E$). Occasional stretches of sand dunes and lack of water preclude easy movement in this part of Somalia.



Figure 2. Steep slopes of Northern Mountains towering over Gulf of Aden west of Candala ($11^{\circ}28'N$ $49^{\circ}41'E$).

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B. Terrain

Because of the general uniformity of the Somali landscape, the delineation of regions on a map gives an erroneous impression. Even the concept of a boundary as a broad transitional zone does not fit the true nature of the country. The terrain of Northern Somalia and Southern Somalia is discussed separately, however, because more of the land is in steep slope north of about 8°N than in the area to the south.

1. Northern Somalia

The terrain north of Eil is characterized by a narrow, discontinuous coastal plain separated from vast interior plains by high, rugged mountains and sheer escarpments. From the border of French Somaliland eastward to Berbera most of the coastal plain is relatively wide, extending inland nearly 40 miles at Zeila. This section, known as the Guban, consists of alternating stretches of sand, gravel, and mudflat (see Figure 1), often backed by low sand dunes. From Berbera eastward to Cape Guardafui (Ras Aser), isolated patches of coastal plain alternate with much longer stretches of hills and mountains that extend to the sea (see Figure 2). From Cape Guardafui southward to Eil the coastal plain averages 10 to 15 miles in width and is essentially a strip of shifting sand dunes, salt flats, and occasional gravel plains. Coral reefs 2 to 10 miles offshore parallel much of the northern coastline.

Steep, rocky slopes and vertical cliffs mark the high, north-facing escarpment formed by the Northern Mountains (see Figure 3). This mountainous zone is relatively broken and subdued west of Hargeisa but presents a nearly continuous barrier from Hargeisa eastward to Cape Guardafui. Crests along the escarpment range from 5,500 feet near Hargeisa to 7,900 feet at Shimber Berris. The only major gaps in the escarpment are Asseh Gap (2,500 feet), Carin Gap (1,000 feet), and El Gal Saddle (1,000 feet). The southern, less rugged slopes of the mountains merge gradually with the high plains of the interior.

Vast flat to rolling plains dotted with numerous termite mounds (some 20 feet high) extend from the base of the Northern Mountains southward and southeastward across the Altopiano del Sol (Sol Plateau), the Nogal Valley, and the Haud (Haud Plateau) to the Ogaden (Ogaden Plateau) in Ethiopia and the high escarpments overlooking the Indian Ocean. Surfaces of the Sol Plateau and the Haud as well as the Nogal Valley are sandy, with occasional stretches of gravel. The Sol Plateau is flanked on the north by the Vallata del Daror (Daror Valley) -- actually a broad plain, about 50 miles wide in the west narrowing

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to about 10 miles near the coast, ending in a series of escarpments that descend to the narrow coastal plain -- and on the east the plateau reaches to within a few miles of the Indian Ocean. Its northern and eastern edges are delineated by limestone hills and escarpments (some 150 feet high) incised by numerous deep, narrow tugs, or seasonally dry stream courses (see Figure 4). The Nōgal Valley is a broad depression that is ill defined except near its mouth, where occasional steep escarpments mark the valley sides (see Figure 5). The Haud Plateau extends southward into Ethiopia and merges on the east with the Nōgal Valley.

2. Southern Somalia

The terrain south of the latitude of Eil consists of a broad, flat to undulating coastal plain, which rises and merges with a higher rolling surface that extends into Ethiopia.

The coastal plain, which rises to approximately 650 feet on its interior margin, extends inland less than 15 miles at Eil but widens to some 150 miles in the south. In southern Somalia the coastal plain is neither well defined nor uniformly flat but instead includes the Mudugh (Mudugh Plain), which extends from Eil to the Scebeli River; the Scebeli - Giuba Lowlands, between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers; and the Trans-Giuba Plain in the southwest. The surfaces of these areas are nearly featureless (see Figure 6); for the most part they are sandy, but on the Trans-Giuba Plain heavy clay soils are also common. A few steep, short slopes border the shallow tugs that cross the coastal plain at wide, irregular intervals.

A zone of sand dunes, sandy hills, and low cliffs extends along the coast. This zone varies in width from 1 to 18 miles, and the hills vary in height from 200 to more than 500 feet. Narrow, steep, sandy beaches fringe the coast for many miles. As in northern Somalia, coral reefs 2 to 10 miles offshore parallel the entire coastline. Southwest of Chisimaio these reefs emerge and form the low, sandy Isole Giuba (Bajun Islands).

A series of plateaus extends along the interior margin of the coastal plain. It includes the part of the Haud Plateau that is east of 48°E; the Ogaden Plateau, most of which lies in Ethiopia; the Scebeli - Giuba Plateau; and the Trans-Giuba Plateau. The surfaces of these plateaus resemble high plains, generally flat to undulating (see Figure 7), and consist mainly of alternating stretches of clayey, stony, and most often sandy soils. Occasional stretches along some of the tugs, however, have steep banks 5 to 10 feet high (see Figure 8), and the valleys of the

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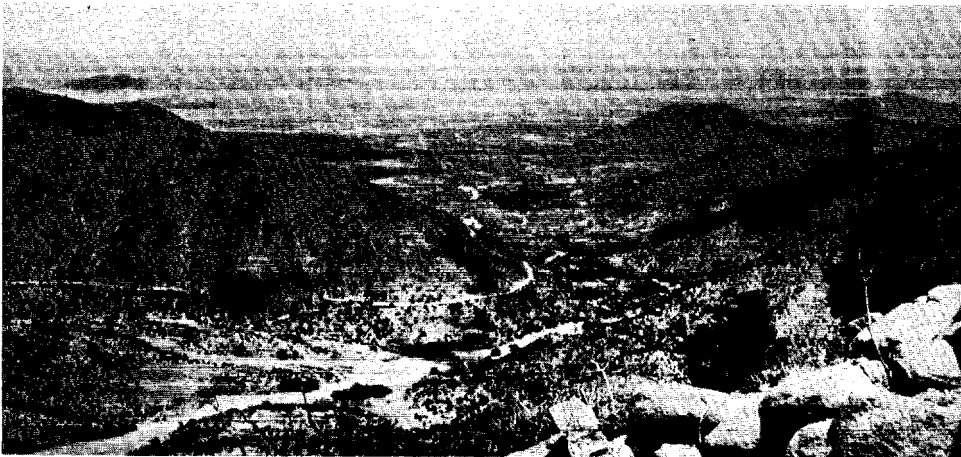


Figure 3. View northward from summit of high escarpment at Sheikh Pass ($09^{\circ}58'N$ $45^{\circ}13'E$). The low, rolling coastal plain south of Berbera extends across the background.



Figure 4. Rugged eastern edge of Sol Plateau ($10^{\circ}30'N$ $49^{\circ}40'E$). Most of the sparse vegetation grows along the tugs.

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Figure 5. Low, rocky escarpments marking north-eastern edge of the Haud Plateau ($08^{\circ}17'N$ $49^{\circ}18'E$). The southern edge of the Nogal Valley lies at the base of these slopes.

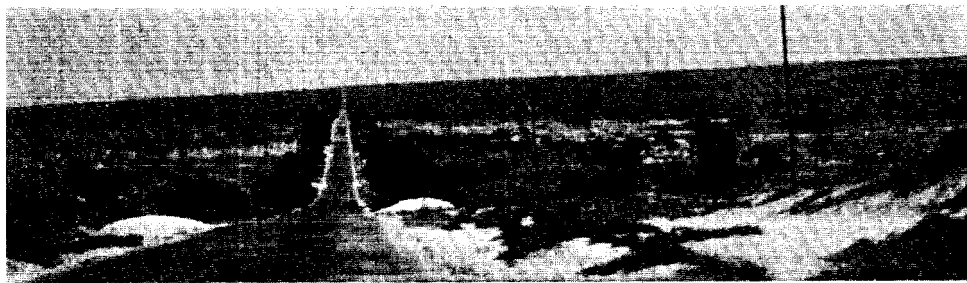


Figure 6. Coastal plain 12 miles north of Mogadiscio. Concealment is generally poor here but cross-country movement by foot and vehicle is fairly easy.

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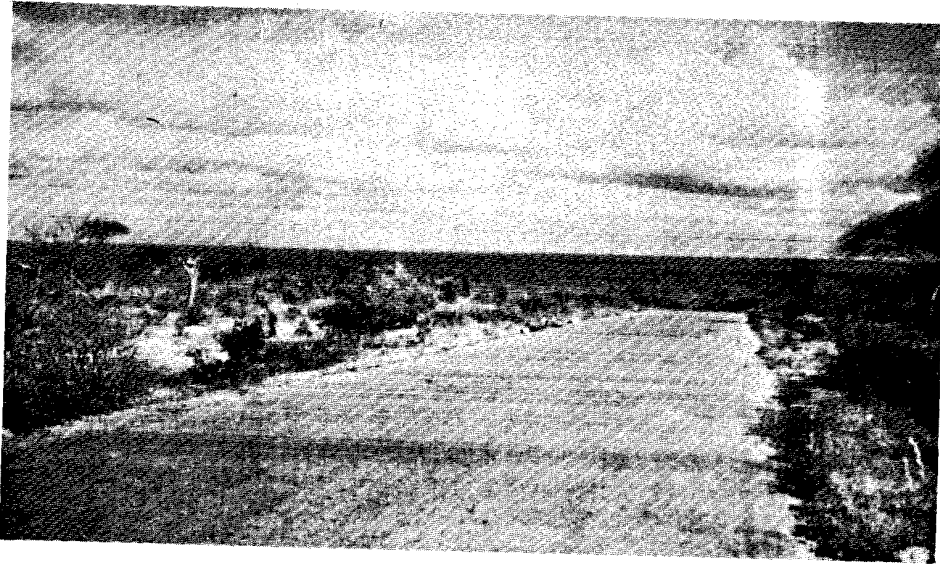


Figure 7. Flat, scrub-covered plain near southern edge of Scebeli - Giuba Plateau ($03^{\circ}00'N$ $43^{\circ}45'E$).

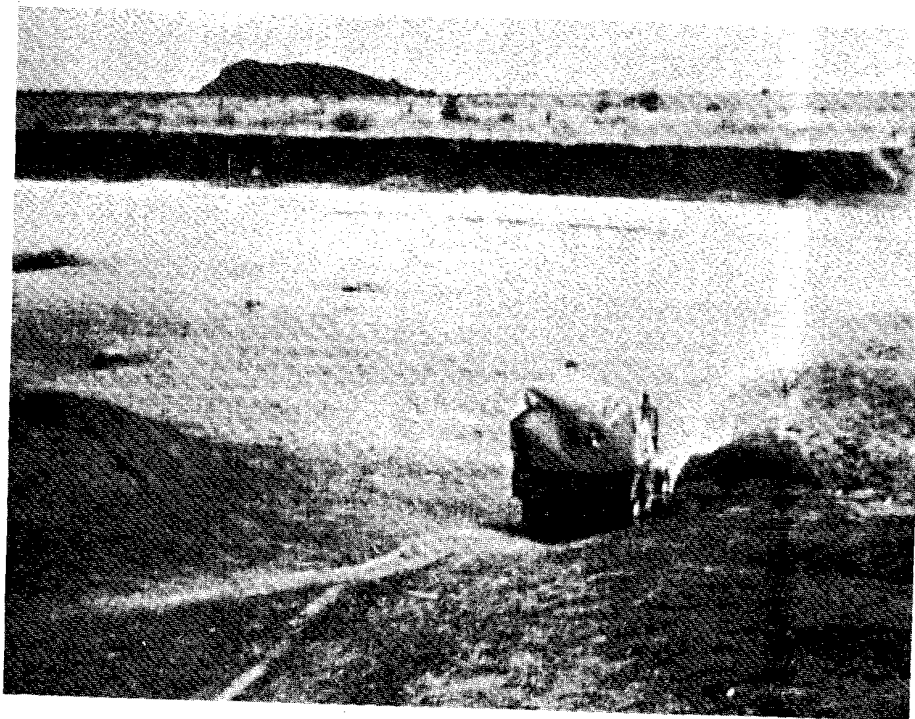


Figure 8. Ford across dry tug northeast of Bur Acaba ($02^{\circ}50'N$ $44^{\circ}07'E$). During the rainy seasons this crossing may be closed by floodwaters for several hours or days.

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Scebeli and Giuba Rivers are marked by low hills and occasional steep escarpments (see Figure 9). For the most part, these plateaus merge imperceptibly with the coastal plain; but in the interrivers area, a zone of burs, or isolated granite hills (see Figure 10), marks the dividing line.

C. Climate

Most of Somalia is hot to very hot throughout the year. Seasonal variations are relatively slight -- generally less than 10 Fahrenheit degrees -- especially in the south. Average daily high temperatures usually exceed 93°F and in some areas exceed 100°F. Sea breezes modify temperatures somewhat along the Indian Ocean, where temperatures are near 90°F during the day and near 75°F at night. Only in the Guban is there a marked contrast in temperature from the warmest to the coldest month. Here daily high temperatures average nearly 105°F in July but are in the mid-80's by January.

Most of Somalia is also dry, except during two short rainy seasons that are associated with the shifting of the monsoon winds. Precipitation is unreliable, especially in the drier sections of the country. Many places have experienced total drought for 2 or 3 years and then in one storm received more than the annual average. An almost continuous zone of very low rainfall (less than 10 inches a year) extends southward and southwestward from the Gulf of Aden to the Scebeli River. Annual rainfall at the following places is representative of this section: Burao, 8 inches; El Bur, 4 inches; Berbera, 2 inches; Eil, 2 inches; and Alula, 1 inch. Interruptions in this zone of low rainfall occur in the highest parts (above 4,000 feet) of the northern plateaus and mountains: Upper Sheikh, 22 inches; and Hargeisa, 15 inches. The area west of the Scebeli River receives the highest rainfall, generally between 15 and 20 inches annually. Mogadiscio, for example, has 17 inches, and Lugh Ganana has 14 inches.

The seasonal pattern of rainfall in Somalia is closely related to the monsoon winds, which blow from northeast in December through March and from southwest in June through September. The shifting of the monsoons results in four distinct seasons.

Jilal (December through March)

Jilal is the period in which winds blow from the northeast (Northeast Monsoon). This is southern Somalia's main dry season, when temperatures are high, rainfall minimal, and visibility is generally unlimited by cloud cover. In northern Somalia

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Figure 9. Low, steep escarpment marking eastern side of Scebeli Valley. This blacktop road, just east of Belet Uen, is one of the better stretches of the highway connecting Mogadiscio with Ferfer ($04^{\circ}45'N$ $45^{\circ}12'E$).



Figure 10. Bur (isolated granite hill) a short distance northwest of Bur Acaba (approximately $02^{\circ}47'N$ $44^{\circ}05'E$). Burs are the only major surface irregularities on the otherwise continuous expanse of rolling plains that dominates most of southern Somalia.

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this season is dry and windy but not as hot as in the south. Occasional rainstorms occur along the northern coast during Jilal.

Gu (April through May)

Gu is the transitional period when the prevailing winds shift from northeast to southwest. For nearly all of Somalia except the northern coastal fringe, this is the main rainy season. Short, heavy showers and thunderstorms are characteristic. Temperatures rise rapidly in the north and remain very hot in the south.

Haga (June through September)

During Haga the Southwest Monsoon prevails. The wind is strong, often reaching gale force in many areas. In southern Somalia temperatures fall a few degrees, and the skys are quite cloudy. In northern Somalia Haga is the hottest season. Humidity is especially high, and "sticky" conditions prevail along the coast. Occasional heavy showers occur, but this is generally the dry period along the coast. The windward (south-facing) slopes of the high mountain range receive their maximum precipitation in this season. The higher slopes are often enshrouded in clouds. Much of the plateau area south of the mountains is hot, dry, and windy, and blowing dust and haze are common. Along the Gulf of Aden a local wind phenomenon called the Kharif occurs during the Southwest Monsoon. The Kharif is an offshore night wind that usually attains its maximum velocity at dawn and dies out during the day. It is a hot, dry, sand-and-dust-blowing wind. Night temperatures of 100°F often accompany the Kharif.

Dhair (October through November)

Dhair is the transitional period when the prevailing southwest winds shift to the northeast. This is the second rainy season for much of Somalia. In the south temperatures rise and cloud cover decreases. In the north maximum temperatures fall rapidly.

Local winds along the coasts commonly blow offshore at night and onshore during the afternoon throughout the year. The onset of either land or sea breezes may be violent and squally.

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D. Drainage and Water Resources

The broad rolling plains of Somalia are drained by many tugs (called bohols or luggas in the south) and the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. Away from these two rivers, sources of water for human and livestock consumption are meager and widely scattered.

1. Tugs

Most tugs are shallow and narrow and have sandy, rocky bottoms. In the Northern Mountains and along the eastern edge of the Sol Plateau, however, they are mainly deep, rocky gorges. Tugs are relatively numerous and close together in the Northern Mountains, in the Daror and Nogal Valleys, and on the Scebeli - Giuba Plateau and Lowland, but they are few and widely spaced throughout the rest of the country.

Tugs are dry for much of the year (see Figure 8), as they generally flow only during rainstorms and a few hours or days thereafter. Flow usually commences with a flash flood, when in a matter of minutes the dry tug is transformed into a raging torrent. Some tugs in the Northern Mountains have flooded to a depth exceeding 15 feet. The water often overflows tug banks and forms ponds and lakes in nearby depressions, where it may remain long after the tug has dried out. Frequently after a tug has dried out on the surface, water can be obtained by digging a few feet into the gravel or sand bottom.

2. Rivers

The Scebeli and Giuba Rivers have their sources in the highlands of Ethiopia to the north. The part of the Scebeli above Mahaddei Uen and all of the Giuba (see Figure 11) flow perennially. Fluctuations in streamflow reflect the seasonal pattern of rainfall at the sources of the rivers. Both rivers overflow their banks during flood periods, turning local depressions and basins into long-lasting swamps and marshes called desheks (also desech and descec). The larger desheks carry water throughout the year, but the smaller ones usually dry out during low-water periods.

The Scebeli is in maximum flood from March through May, reaching depths of 3.5 feet to 6 feet between Avai and Bulu Burti and more than 6 feet above Bulu Burti. Water levels recede in June and July, rise again to secondary flood levels from August through November, and decline to minimum depth from December through February. During the low-water period the flow decreases to such an extent that below Mahaddei Uen the

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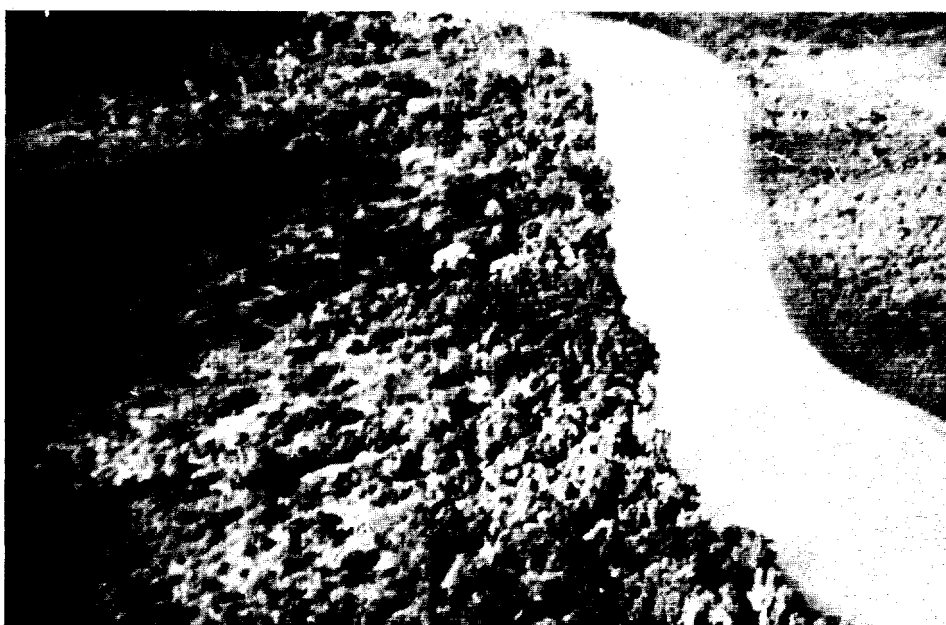


Figure 11. Dense forest bordering Giuba River near Dugiuma (01°15'N 42°34'E). Concealment possibilities offered by the riverine forest are offset by the relatively high population density near the river.

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river becomes a strip of intermittent pools and waterholes and, in the very lowest reaches, swamps and marshes. On the Giuba River the main flood season is from April through October, when average stream depth exceeds 6 feet. Flood levels recede in November and rise again in December, the second flood season. The depth of the Giuba declines rapidly thereafter to minimum depths (3.5 feet) in March.

3. Dams and Reservoirs

Numerous dams and water-storage reservoirs have been constructed along the two rivers and on some of the larger tugs (see Figure 12). Between 1953 and 1958 four large storage reservoirs were constructed at Coriole and Farkiero on the lower Scebeli and at Anole and Hela Redidi on the Giuba. These reservoirs provide water for livestock and irrigation during Jilal.

4. Wells and Boreholes

Wells (el or eil) are the main sources of water for much of Somalia. Although they are found throughout the country, they are fairly numerous in the Daror and Nogal Valleys and in the area between the Giuba and Scebeli Rivers. In contrast there are few on the Mudugh Plain and on the plains west of the Giuba River.

Many wells are dug in the dry tug beds where water may be only a few feet beneath the surface. Usually these must be redug every year because they are destroyed by floodwaters. Most wells are less than 60 feet deep, hand dug, unlined, uncovered, and seasonally dry. Very few have pumps or other lifting devices (see Figure 13). Many are saline, brackish, or fouled by animals. Even some of the permanent wells have water that is very high in mineral content.

Boreholes (deep wells) are reliable sources of water in only a few localities, mainly in the south. Many were drilled by the government in recent years, and most of them produce fairly large quantities of clean water (see Figure 14). The water in some of the boreholes is highly mineral.

5. Catchment Basins

Other major sources of water are the numerous catchment basins, natural and artificial, called balleh in the north and uar in the south. These basins collect surface runoff during the rainy seasons and provide water for livestock well into the dry seasons. They range from small ponds to large lakes; the smaller ones generally dry out before the

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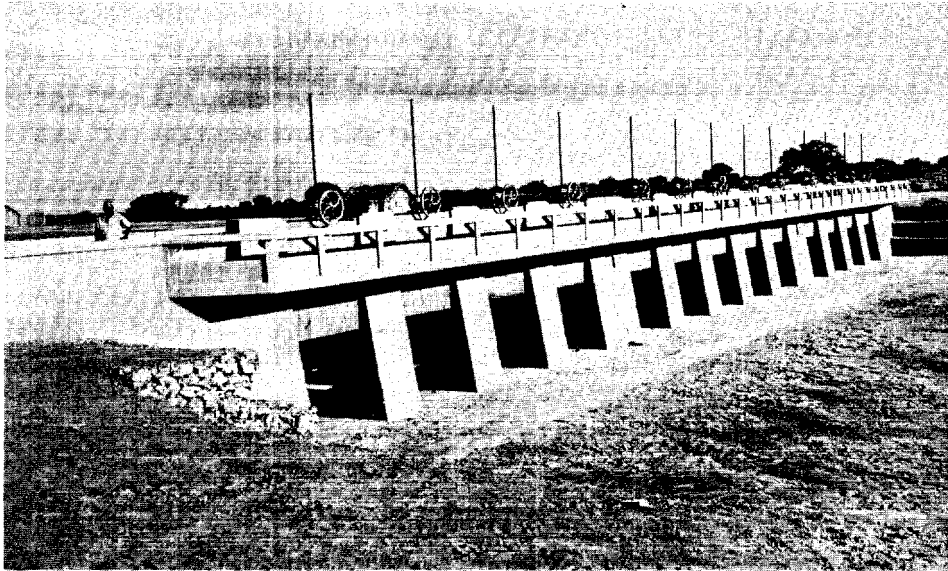


Figure 12. Irrigation dam on lower reaches of Lach Dera at Descec Uama ($00^{\circ}01'N$ $42^{\circ}27'E$).



Figure 13. Well at El Coholle on flat Mudugh Plain north of El Bur ($04^{\circ}51'N$ $46^{\circ}31'E$). Poor covering exposes the water to contamination. This is typical of the unimproved wells throughout Somalia.

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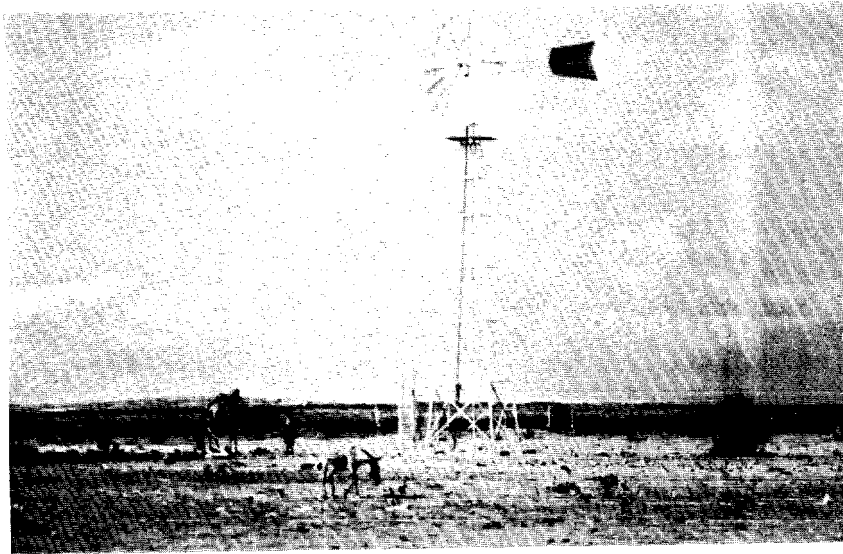


Figure 14. Well near Brava ($01^{\circ}08'N$ $44^{\circ}03'E$) pumped by wind power. This is one of several boreholes drilled since 1950.

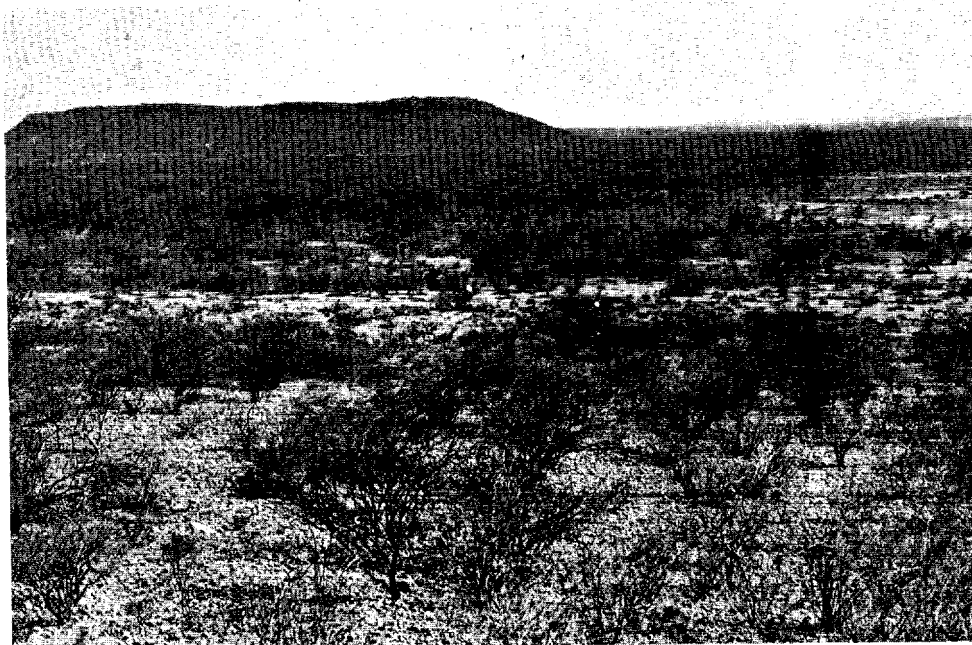


Figure 15. Thornbush-covered plain near southern edge of Ogaden Plateau ($05^{\circ}06'N$ $45^{\circ}09'E$). This sparse vegetation offers very limited concealment.

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end of the dry season. The water is sweet but usually polluted and muddy. Catchment basins are the main sources of water in the dry seasons over much of the Sol, Haud, and Ogaden Plateaus, the Mudugh Plain, and the plains west of the Giuba River.

6. Springs

Springs are locally important in the Northern Mountains and in the upper reaches of the Daror Valley. Most of them have sweet water, but a few are hot springs and have highly mineralized water. In southern Somalia there are a number of springs along the sides of the Scebeli River Valley north of Bullo Burti and on the eastern side of the Giuba River, up to 50 miles north of Bardera.

7. Swamps and Marshes

Swamps and marshes are generally near the coasts, along the two large rivers, and along the lower reaches of some of the larger tugs. Swamp areas are most extensive along the lower reaches of the Scebeli River from Coriole to Gelib and along the lower reaches of Lach Dera from the Kenya border to Afmadu. Most of the inland swamps and marshes are seasonal. They are largest during and after the rainy seasons, when they are impassable quagmires and highly infested with insects, but usually they dry up during Jilal, the major drought period.

E. Vegetation

Throughout most of Somalia vegetation is sparse, reflecting the meager rainfall. On the broad, rolling plains it consists mainly of stretches of low thornbush and dry grass alternating with large areas of bare ground. Forests are limited almost entirely to the banks of the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. During the long droughts the landscape is a dull brown and gray, but the rains make it relatively lush.

Low, drought-resistant thornbush covers a large proportion of the country. This thornbush is relatively dense on the Scebeli - Giuba Lowlands and the Trans-Giuba Plain (see Figure 6). In drier sections of the country such as the interior plateaus (see Figures 5, 7, and 15) it is sparser and often interspersed with low shrubs and grass. In the driest sections -- the narrow, broken coastal plain of northern Somalia, the Sol Plateau, and the Mudugh Plain -- individual thornbush trees are widely scattered on open, often bare, ground. More often than not, the sparse brush and tree growth is concentrated near wells or tug beds (see Figure 4).

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Grass cover is extensive on the interior plateaus of northern Somalia, especially on the Haud Plateau. Fairly large tracts of grass also alternate with the thickets and dense thornbush west of the Scebeli River. Many areas that formerly were grassy, however, are now cultivated, especially in the area between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers (see Figure 16).

A relatively dense growth of trees and brush occurs along the banks of the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers (see Figure 11). Elsewhere, trees grow in isolated clumps near the permanent wells and strung out sparsely along the larger tugs. The remnants of a once extensive juniper forest are found on the highest slopes of the Northern Mountains.

Some of the slopes of the Northern Mountains are practically bare of vegetation (see Figure 2), but on others thinly scattered thornbush and brush are common (see Figure 3). Included with the brush are the trees (Commiphora and Boswellia) from which incense and myrrh are produced.

Marsh and seasonal swamp vegetation, consisting of reeds and grass 4 to 6 feet high, is especially dense along the lower course of the Scebeli River from Coriole to the mouth of the river near Gelib, as well as along the course of Lach Dera from the Kenya border to Afmadu. Dense, nearly impenetrable mangrove fringes much of the coast south of Chisimaio.

Cultivated land comprises only a very minor part of Somalia, mostly near the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers and in the area between them (see Figure 17). A small area of cultivation extends west of Hargeisa to Borama in northern Somalia. In the rest of Somalia small patches of land near some of the larger permanent wells and springs are cultivated. Durra (grain sorghum) and maize are the main crops. Sesame, dry beans, peanuts, sweet potatoes, and various vegetables are generally grown in conjunction with durra and maize. Farms operated by Italians, mainly along the banks of the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers, grow irrigated cash crops such as bananas, cotton, sugarcane, and citrus fruits. A few date palm groves are located in northeastern Somalia near permanent wells and springs.

F. Factors Affecting Land, Air, and Sea Operations

Throughout most of Somalia terrain presents few obstacles to cross-country movement, but the sparse vegetation offers limited possibilities for concealment. In the parts of southern Somalia where the thornbush is relatively dense, however, cross-country movement on foot or in vehicles is

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Figure 16. Field of durra near Sciaule on Scebeli-Giuba Plateau ($03^{\circ}08'N$ $43^{\circ}06'E$). Platforms are erected near many of these fields so that the crops can be observed and guarded against birds and other crop marauders.



Figure 17. Cultivated land near Chisimaio ($00^{\circ}27'S$ $42^{\circ}32'E$). Concealment is limited and movement is hampered by the thornbush fences that separate the cultivated plots from pastureland.

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generally difficult and advantages of moderately good concealment are offset by the relatively large concentrations of natives, especially between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. The aridity of most of the country and the pollution of much of the available water are major operational considerations.

Most of the flat to rolling, barren plains can be crossed relatively easily in a light vehicle, and the few widely scattered hills and escarpments can usually be circumvented. The high, rugged mountains of northern Somalia, however, present a major barrier, and any vehicular movement across them is limited to the few passes. Crossing these mountains on foot would be especially difficult. Throughout the remainder of Somalia, vehicles moving cross-country may be held up for short periods during rainy seasons when the numerous tugs are in flood and roads and off-road areas become nearly impassable quagmires. On the Trans-Giuba Plain and the Scebeli - Giuba Lowland the relatively dense thornbush limits most movement to existing roads and trails. Hedgerowlike fences made of dense thornbush surround the small cultivated fields that occupy most of the open land between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers (see Figure 17). These areas are most difficult to cross in vehicles. The dense forest and swamp growth paralleling the two large rivers and the numerous stretches of seasonal marsh growth on the Trans-Giuba Plain -- mainly the large marshy zone marking the course of Lach Dera -- are major barriers to cross-country movement, especially during the rainy periods.

The sparse vegetation of most of Somalia offers very little concealment. During dry periods dust raised by vehicles can be seen for miles. Opportunities for concealment are best during and shortly after rainy periods when grass and shrub growth are densest. Small groups could be somewhat better concealed from air observation in the relatively dense scrub areas and forest zones south and west of the Scebeli River than elsewhere in Somalia, but they probably could not move any distance without being observed by natives. Even in the remotest areas people appear as if from nowhere, more so in the rainy seasons.

Living off the land in most of Somalia would be extremely difficult. Vast tracts of land are completely waterless during the dry periods, and the little available water is often polluted. Most natives gather near the permanent wells, springs, and streams in the dry seasons and would be practically impossible to avoid while trying to get water. In the rainy seasons water is generally available over large areas, grazing areas are less restricted, and the herdsmen begin moving their herds to the

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remotest pasturelands. Thus the chances of moving any distance undetected are somewhat worse in the wet seasons than in the dry seasons. Tug beds should be avoided during wet periods, since they may flood without warning.

Food is generally scarce, except in small cultivated (and more populous) areas. In grazing areas, milk and meat from the native herds and wild game are the only food sources. Even in cultivated areas it would be difficult to live off the land and not be detected by the natives, since the fields, gardens, and food-storage areas are closely watched.

Numerous natural landing sites for light aircraft and drop zones for airdrops are available throughout most of Somalia except the rugged mountain zone in the north. The many high termite mounds on the Sol and Haud Plateaus present landing hazards, especially in the rainy periods when they may be obscured by tall grass. Landing sites are scarcest in the dense scrub areas of southern Somalia. Stretches of open grassland can be used for landing during dry periods, and most grassland can be used as drop zones. Any air operation runs a high risk of compromise, especially in the interrivers area, which is the most densely populated part of Somalia. During the dry seasons visibility is limited by haze and blowing dust, and in the southern plains there are few landmarks.

The many long sandy beaches along Somalia's 1,800-mile coastline offer numerous landing sites. Only light landing craft are recommended, however, and in most areas they can be used only during high tide, because the entire coast is fringed by offshore coral reefs.

On the Gulf of Aden landing sites are numerous, but access to the interior is severely limited by the high, steep escarpments of the Northern Mountains. Heavy surfs accompany the Northeast Monsoon winds from December through March. The best conditions for landing operations in Somalia are along the Indian Ocean between Brava and Obbia, where long sandy beaches are numerous and terrain and vegetation barriers to movement inland are relatively few. Elsewhere along the Indian Ocean, steep coral cliffs back many of the beaches. North of Eil the high escarpments marking the edges of the Sol Plateau block easy vehicular access to the interior. South of Chisimaio, long stretches of nearly impenetrable mangrove swamp fringe the coast. Where there is no mangrove cover the relatively dense scrub offers good concealment but hampers vehicular movement inland. The entire Indian Ocean coast is subject to heavy swells accompanying both the Southwest and Northeast Monsoons. Heavy surfs (four feet or more) occur most frequently on the Indian Ocean coast from June thru August, the height of the Southwest Monsoon, and least frequently during the Northeast Monsoon.

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Most of Somalia is sparsely populated. There has never been an official census of the country, but according to a UN estimate the total population in 1962 was approximately 2,250,000.

The distribution of population in 1962, by administrative region from north to south, is estimated as follows:

<u>Region</u>	<u>Population</u>
Hargeisa	300,000
Burao	361,000
Migiurtinia	104,000
Mudugh	177,000
Hiran	223,000
Benadir	488,000
Alto Giuba	455,000
Basso Giuba	142,000

Population distribution on the arid plains varies with the seasons. During the dry seasons most people are concentrated near the two main rivers -- the Scebeli and the Giuba -- and the widely scattered permanent wells. During the rainy seasons and shortly thereafter, however, large numbers of people move their herds into the remotest areas in search of fresh pasture.

Town dwellers in Somalia are distinctly in the minority. Population in most towns, like that in rural areas, fluctuates sharply with the seasons. During a drought many herdsmen retreat to the towns, where water is generally available, but with the first rain after the drought they leave. The estimated 1964 populations of the principal cities and towns are listed below:

<u>Town</u>	<u>Population</u>
Mogadiscio	121,000
Merca	56,000
Hargeisa	40,000
Giamama	22,000
Coriole	21,000
Baidoa	18,000
Afgoi	17,000
Giohar	17,000
Belet Uen	14,500
Burao	13,000

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<u>Town</u>	<u>Population</u>
Berbera	12,000
Chisimaio	12,000
Bur Acaba	11,000
Gelib	10,500

Somalia is inhabited predominantly by Somalis but also by small numbers of Negroes and other peoples. The population of the various groups is estimated as follows:

<u>Group</u>	<u>Population</u>
Somalis	2,111,000
Negroes	100,000
Arabs	30,000
Foreigners	5,000
Bajuni	3,000
Amarani	1,000

The Somalis are generally believed to be an eastern Hamitic (Cushite) people who entered northern Somalia from Ethiopia about 1000 AD. The Somalis themselves, however, do not accept this theory about their origins. They proudly trace their ancestry through an elaborately fabricated lineage system to Arab noblemen who migrated to northern Somalia in about the 14th century. As the number of Somalis in the north increased, so did the size of their herds, and the people began migrating southwestward. They displaced most of the Galla and Bantu peoples in the area, but they assimilated some into Somali society. By 1500 the Somalis had reached the Giuba River, and for the next 300 years the southwestward movement stagnated. Many Somali pastoralists switched to growing crops in the relatively moist areas between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. In about 1850 the Somalis resumed their migration. They crossed the Giuba River and by 1900 had reached the Tana River in Kenya, which marks the limit of their southwest expansion. The Somalis now occupy the entire Horn of Africa, from the Tana River in Kenya to the Golfe de Tadjoura in French Somaliland (see Map 53018). Pastoral Somalis live in all but a small part of this area. Somalis engaged in cultivation are located near the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers and on the plains between these rivers.

The Somalis have distinctly Caucasoid characteristics, as do the Eastern Hamites. Physically, they are closely related to the Afar, Saho, Galla, and Beja peoples who occupy many of the arid and semiarid areas north and west

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of Somalia. The Somalis are of relatively tall stature (averaging 5 feet 6 inches) and medium to slight build (see Figures 18 and 19). Skin color ranges from light to very dark brown. Most Somalis have long, angular faces, comparatively long, thin noses, and curly or wavy black hair (see Figures 20 through 22). Some of the southern Somalis display some Negro characteristics, resulting from the long periods of contact with these groups.

The Somalis have been described variously as intelligent, sophisticated, inordinately proud, and extremely individualistic. As a group, they are warlike; interclan fighting for survival, sport, or prestige takes place constantly. Their common ethnic origin and several other unifying factors, however, tend to draw them together. All Somalis adhere, in varying degrees, to the tenets of Islam. All speak the same language, and in spite of dialectal differences most Somalis understand each other.

For purposes of this Handbook the Somalis are divided into two cultural groups, the numerically superior nomadic pastoralists and the sedentary cultivators. The dividing line between these groups is often hazy, as many Somalis fit into both categories.

The Negroes of Somalia are descendants of pre-Somali cultivators and hunters and of slaves freed in the last century. The majority are concentrated along the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers, but some are scattered between these rivers. Most of them are cultivators, but they often hunt and fish on the side. Very few purely hunting groups remain in Somalia. For the most part these people have typical Negro features -- stocky build, kinky hair, broad nose, thick lips, and black skin (see Figures 23 and 24).

A small number of people known as "outcasts" -- apparently remnants of the pre-Somali hunters -- are attached as serfs to the pastoral clans in the north. This group includes the Tumul, Midgan, and Yibir tribes. Physically many outcasts are indistinguishable from the Somalis. They engage in metalcraft, leatherwork, and hunting.

B. Somalis

1. Social Organization

a. Lineage System

The foundation of Somali society is its complex, segmented, patrilineal system of lineages within lineages. The

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Figure 18. Somali police near the Ethiopian border south of Hargeisa ($09^{\circ}07'N$ $43^{\circ}54'E$).

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Figure 19. Rahanwein
Somalis at Baidoa ($03^{\circ}07'N$
 $43^{\circ}38'E$). The bands on
the girls' heads indicate
single status.



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Figure 20. Somali of the Rahanwein clan family, near Baidoa.

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Figure 21. Somali near Ischia. The spear, quiver, and headrest are always handy.

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Figure 22. Somali youth at Baidoa.

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Figure 23. Gosha women in a small village on the Guiba River. The garb shown here is typical of that worn by Negro peoples in that area.

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Figure 24. Gosha children along the Guiba River.

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basic lineage is the clan family, which is subdivided successively into lineages known as clans, subclans, primary lineages, and dia-paying groups (see page 42). Each of these lineages generally has a common ancestor and is named after this ancestor. Some lineages of the agricultural clan families, however, are organized in federations of peoples with no common ancestor. Such a lineage may adopt the name of its locality.

There are six clan families in Somalia. Three are pastoral -- the Darod, Is'hak, and Dir -- and trace their ancestry to a common founder, Samaale. Two are agricultural or semipastoral -- the Rahanwein and Digil -- and likewise have a traditional founder, Sab. The sixth -- the Hawiya -- is mostly pastoral and was founded by Samaale, but a few members of this group in the south are agriculturalists. The agriculturalists are not pure Somalis, since they are descendants of the Somalis who migrated into southern Somalia and intermixed with the Galla and Negroes who were there first.

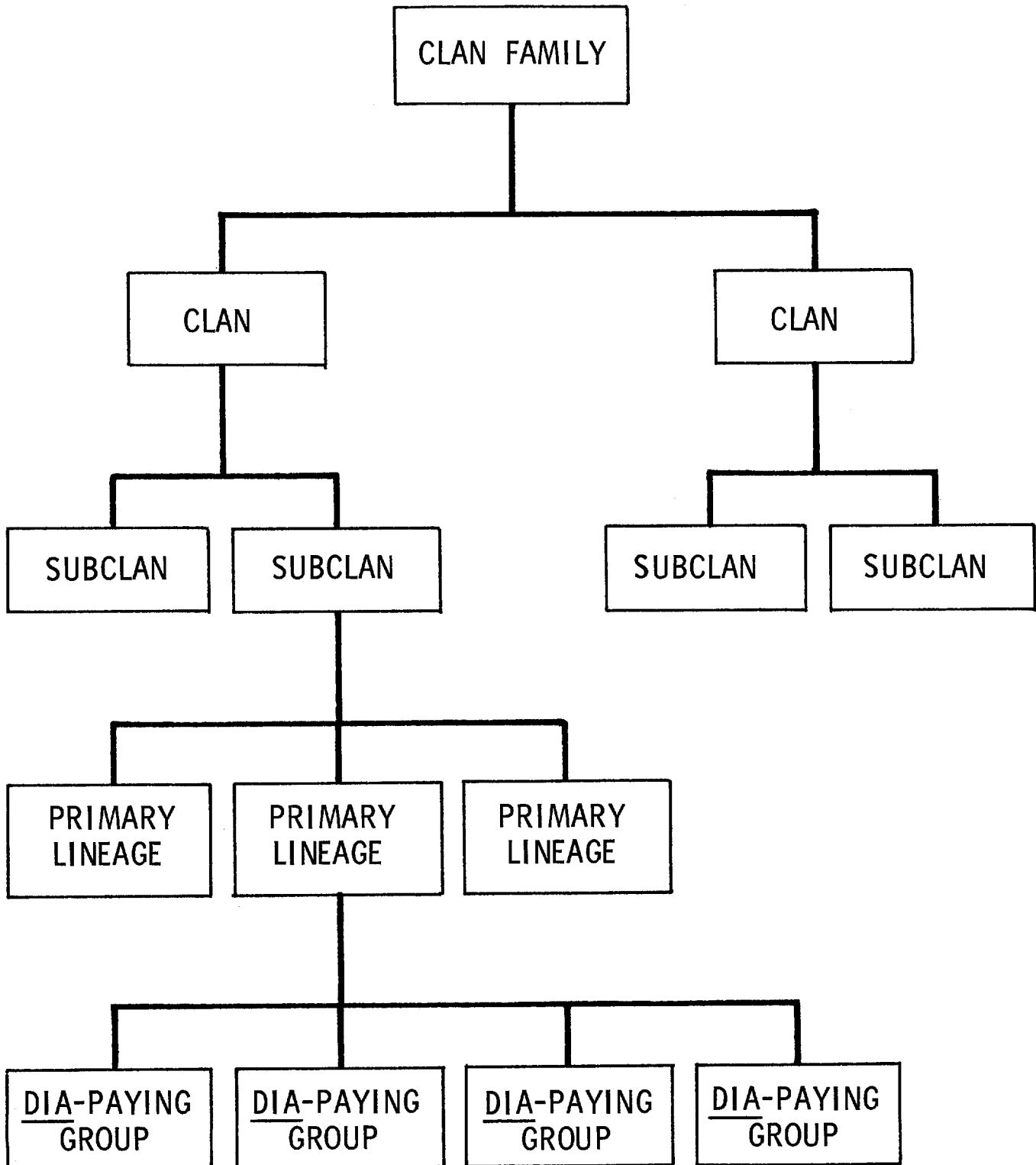
Within each clan family are many clans, the largest of which are divided into subclans. Land is owned by the clans and subclans rather than by the individual clansmen. Land is of fundamental importance to the agriculturalists, who hold it on a permanent basis, but is of less significance to the nomads.

Probably the most distinct descent group is the primary lineage, and a Somali normally identifies himself as a member of his primary lineage. Primary lineages are linked through marriage, but stock theft and feud are constantly carried on among them.

The lowest unit of the fixed hierarchy is called the dia-paying group because it is responsible for paying the dia, or bloodwite -- a penalty for shedding blood during the almost constant feuding between the many lineages. This group is also responsible for imposing the dia that must be paid to it by offending groups. Within each primary lineage the dia-paying groups are numerous. A man is born, lives, and dies as a member of one dia-paying group and his day-by-day living is controlled by its laws. Individual members of the group have specific rights and duties, mostly relating to collective defense. Collectively, all members are responsible for the actions of all other members as well as themselves. Offenses or crimes inflicted upon a member of the group by an outsider require retribution not to the individual offended but to his group. Conversely, most of the retribution for a crime committed by a member is

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paid by his dia-paying group.

In addition to the fixed hierarchies, groups of four or five families, generally closely related, within a dia-paying group reside together in camel camps or hamlets. These residential groups are called rer. They are quite mobile, as families are constantly leaving or joining the camps and many rer are organized on a temporary basis only.

b. Social Classes

Social classes are practically nonexistent in Somali society. All men are either waranleh (warriors) or wadaad (men of religion). Regardless of how he gains his livelihood, anyone who practices as a religious expert is a wadaad (see Figure 25).

Women occupy an inferior status. Officially they have no voice in clan matters, and much of the heavy labor such as setting up and dismantling the nomadic camps is relegated to them. Compensation for a woman's life is only 50 camels, whereas it is 100 camels for the life of a man.

c. Leadership

Leadership within most lineages is vested in the elders (see Figure 26) and in a chief. The elders exercise their power through the consent of the male members of the clan, and the chief usually is chosen by the elders. In many clans and in the subclans of some of the larger clans such as the Dulbahante (Darod clan family) the chief is known as a sultan (see Figure 27). The power of the chief depends greatly upon his personality and leadership ability. He is often assisted by a committee of elders, which deals with communal matters such as migration, grazing, and watering. A court of elders settles most civil, criminal, and social problems according to traditional customs. Sharia (Islamic Law) is followed in some areas, but in most areas away from the coast (where orthodox Islam is well established) Sharia defers to Somali custom if the two differ.

2. Pastoral Clan Families

The four widely dispersed pastoral clan families (including the Hawiya) number more than 2 million, counting members who live in parts of the Horn of Africa other than Somalia. The Darod exceed 1 million, and the Hawiya exceed 500,000. Together the Dir and Is'hak total about 500,000.

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Figure 25. Muslim holy man, wadaad, at Genale, on the Scebeli River ($01^{\circ}48'N$ $44^{\circ}42'E$). Holy men move from hamlet to hamlet imparting the essentials of Islam, the Koran, and some elementary Arabic to the children of the encampments.

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Figure 26. Elder of the Rahanwein clan family,
near Baidoa.

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Figure 27. Sultan of one of the northern pastoral clans. The short goatee (occasionally dyed bright red) is usually worn by senior elders of the pastoral clans.

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Life for the pastoralist entails a continuous search for new pasture and water for his herds. Water and pasture vary in availability from season to season as well as from year to year, and more often than not there is not enough of either to go around. Competition for these limited resources leads directly to interclan clashes while in pursuit of water or pasture and indirectly to stock raiding to replace losses due to inadequate water or grazing. Raids may be between clans, subclans, or primary lineages. Raiding may also stem from factors of prestige or from the need for raising funds to pay either the blood-price incurred in feuds or the bride-price for a wife.

a. Settlement

The pastoralists live in nomadic hamlets called guris, which are enclosed within large circular compounds called zaribas. The zariba is enclosed by a dense thorn fence, and within each zariba are numerous thorn-fenced pens designed to protect the livestock from marauding animals at night. Also within the zariba are the huts of the wife or wives and the young children of the eldest male (patriarch), those of his married sons and their families, those of his unwed daughters of marriageable age, and those of other close kin. If he has more than one wife, each owns her own hut and the husband divides his time between them.

Each wife is allotted two or three burden camels, which provide milk as well as a means of transport (see Figure 28), and number of sheep and goats. A woman with three children can subsist on a flock of 50 sheep and goats and live reasonably well on 100. The animals are tended by the unwed daughters and boys too young to care for the main herds of camels.

The nomadic hut is a collapsible, beehive-shaped structure 5 to 8 feet high (see Figures 29 and 30). It consists of a skeletal framework of branches bound together into a more or less elliptical form and covered with mats of hide or of tightly woven grass or straw. The frame is easily erected and dismantled, and the branches are used as a pack platform on the camel's back -- or, occasionally, on a donkey's back -- when the nomads are on the move. Women load and unload the animals and erect and dismantle the huts.

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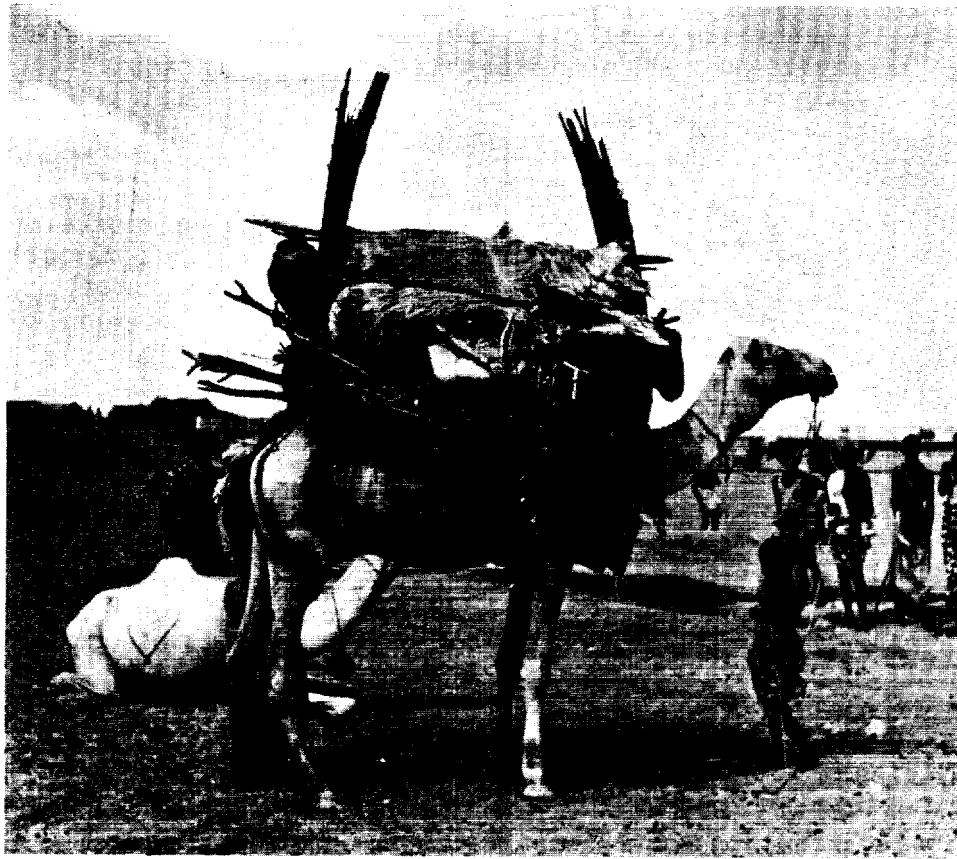


Figure 28. Burden camel laden with the collapsible hut and other belongings of a nomad family near Ferfer, on the Ethiopian boundary ($05^{\circ}06'N$ $45^{\circ}09'E$). Although the camel is rarely ridden, it provides the principal means of transport for the pastoralist.

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Figure 29. Scene at El Bur on the Mudugh Plain (04°40'N 46°37'E). The small, dome-shaped structures is the typical collapsible hut used by the nomadic pastoralists. The round and rectangular structures in the background are common in the permanent villages of southern Somalia.



Figure 30. Nomadic huts in the Somali sector of Mogadiscio (02°04'N 45°22'E).

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b. Camel Husbandry

The camel is the most important animal in northern Somalia and in many parts of the south (see Figure 31). Its milk, milk products, and meat are the principal foods, and its hides are used domestically as well as for trade. A rich nomad may have 100 camels, but a herd of 10 to 20 camels supports an average family well. The camel is also the principal means of transport when the nomads move their hamlets. The nomad caravan consists of the wives' few burden camels, well laden and led by men on foot or riding horses or mules and followed by flocks of sheep and goats driven by the women and children.

During the rainy seasons and shortly thereafter, practically all the camels are out in green pastures in the care of camel boys 7 to 20 years of age. These herders set up camel camps, which are generally a considerable distance from the home camp. The camps have no huts but do have thorny brush enclosures within which the herd is penned at night. The boys sleep on mats around a fire at the center of the enclosure. While grazing on green pastures camels can go without water as long as 3 months. During the drought periods, when the camels graze on dry brush, the longest they can go without water is 14 days, and when browsing on saltbush they need water every day.

c. Cattle Husbandry

Cattle, mainly of the zebu type (see Figure 32), are of primary importance in the pastoral economy of most of southern Somalia. A few also are raised in the areas of northern Somalia where the water supply is greatest, mainly west of Hargeisa. Two of the pastoral clan families (the Hawiya and the southern Darod) as well as the two agricultural clan families (the Rahanwein and the Digil) raise cattle in considerable numbers. Many of the cattle-owning clans also own camels.

With 20 head of cattle, a family of four can live comfortably, and even with fewer it can subsist. Like camels, cattle are a source of meat, milk, butter, and leather; they also are used for plowing. Unlike camels, however, cattle are rarely used as pack animals. Also unlike camels, they can go unwatered for only 2 or 3 days, and droughts generally take a heavy toll. Nevertheless, zebu cattle are generally hardy and are protected against insects and thorny vegetation by unusually thick hides.

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Figure 31. Grazing camels in southern Somalia. Camels are raised mainly for transportation.



Figure 32. Cattle blocking traffic on road near Chisimaio ($00^{\circ}22'S$ $42^{\circ}32'E$). These humpbacked zebu cattle are raised throughout southern Somalia.

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d. Sheep, Goats, and Other Livestock

Sheep and goats are raised by the wives in both the camel and cattle clans. Most of the sheep are of a hardy, fat-tailed, black-face type. Both sheep and goats are raised for their milk, meat, and hides, but neither is shorn. While grazing on green pastures both can go without water as long as the camel, but neither can go more than 3 or 4 days without water in drought periods. Goats, however, can browse on much coarser and thornier brush than sheep.

A few small, rugged ponies of the Arabian type are raised for riding and for transporting water, chiefly by the wealthiest of the northern pastoralists. Their number has been dwindling in recent years, partly because of the increasing use of motor vehicles to carry water. The Habr Awal (Is'hak clan family), Warsangeli (Darod clan family), and Dulbahante (Darod clan family) have the largest herds. These ponies can be ridden for long distances but must be watered almost every day.

Donkeys are kept mainly by cattle raisers, in the proportion of about 1 per 50 head of cattle. At night they are grazed outside the zariba, for their loud braying warns of animals and other marauders. Donkeys are rugged animals, going 2 or 3 days without water, and are used as beasts of burden. When the rer is on the move, some donkeys are loaded with the dismantled huts and other family belongings while others are ridden by old women and small children. Mules serve the same purpose as donkeys and are just as hardy, but there are very few in Somalia. Most of them come from Ethiopia.

e. Seasonal Migration

In their quest for water and green pasture the nomadic pastoralists are constantly on the move. Their movements have a definite seasonal rhythm. During the dry seasons -- called Jilal (December through March) and Haga (June through September) -- most of the northern clans gather around the home wells and most of the southern Somalis concentrate near the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. During these seasons life is difficult. Large numbers of livestock die for lack of water and pasture, and many humans suffer from malnutrition caused by the shortage of water and food.

Once the long rains of Gu (April through May) and the shorter rains of Dhair (October through November) commence, vegetation comes to life and the pastoralists

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gradually lead their herds from the home wells and rivers far into the bush. A nomad does not wander aimlessly but instead covers territory traditionally pastured by his lineage, even though he may not go to the same place every year. The movement to traditional pastures often involves crossing international boundaries, mainly the Somalia - Ethiopia boundary but also the Somalia - Kenya boundary. Vast numbers of Somalis, chiefly in the Is'hak clans, migrate annually to the Haud and to the Ogaden, which extend into Ethiopia. Approximately 200,000 Is'hak clansmen and members of several Darod and Dir clans migrate to the Haud each year.

The rainy seasons, especially Gu, are times of plenty. Grass, water, milk, and food are plentiful. During these periods of grazing on green pastures the camels, sheep, and goats are not watered. The stock bring forth their young, and the general level of the people's health improves. Social activities increase, debts are settled, marriages are contracted, religious activities increase, and old feuds may be renewed. When the rains fail, however, and the Gu rains do occasionally fail, life becomes extremely precarious, famines occur, disease and pestilence are rife, and the herds are decimated.

f. Diet

Nomads subsist mainly on the products of their herds. Their diet consists of milk, butter, ghee, and occasionally meat from their herds and game. The wives and children live on the products of the herds of sheep, goats, and the few camels allotted to them. In many areas meat is eaten only at feasts or weddings, or when a sick beast must be slaughtered. While in the bush, nomads often subsist on three meals of milk a day. The milk diet is augmented by a porridge made from durra (grain sorghum) flour as well as by tea and coffee when these products are available. The coffee beans are usually roasted in butter. Camel boys away from the main hamlets live almost entirely on milk and occasional game. On very rare occasions they may slaughter a camel for meat.

Bloodletting -- as practiced by the Galla of Ethiopia and the Masai of Kenya and Tanzania -- is also practiced by the Somali pastoralists west of the Giuba River. The blood of the live cow is usually mixed with milk or honey. During the cool, rainy seasons the blood is occasionally drunk directly from the beast's neck.

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3. Agricultural Clan Families

The agricultural clan families, which number between 500,000 and 700,000 people, include the Rahanwein (see Figures 19, 20, and 26), Digil, and some of the southern Hawiya clans. These clans occupy the land between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers in southern Somalia.

People of the agricultural clan families are engaged primarily in the cultivation of crops, but practically every family also raises some livestock. The traditional crops include durra, maize, beans, eleusine, sesame, cotton, manioc, sweet potatoes, papaya, bananas, and other fruits. Crops cultivated on the plains between the two rivers depend solely upon local rainfall, whereas those cultivated near the rivers are also watered by flood irrigation. The livestock are mainly cattle, sheep, and goats and, in lesser number, camels.

a. Settlement

Settlements of the agricultural clans are similar to those of the nomadic pastoral clans, but they are permanent. Enclosed in a zariba are the huts of the patriarch's wives, those of his married sons and other relations, and those of attached Negro families. Within the zariba also are usually several stock pens and numerous grain-storage pits.

Huts of the cultivator differ considerably from the temporary huts of the nomads (see Figures 30 and 33). The cultivator's hut usually is round but occasionally is rectangular. It is constructed of tightly woven wattle branches daubed, or plastered, with a mixture of mud, cinders, and dung. Generally, roofs are also wattle and daub, but some are covered with bundles of grass.

b. Cultivation Practices

Among all agricultural clan families except the Hawiya, agriculture is organized on a system of mutual-help work parties composed of 20 to 30 men and women. The people not only work individually in their own fields but also as teams in the fields of others. Sometimes nearby Negro cultivators are employed and are paid in food.

The brush is cleared by fire where necessary, and the earth is worked with digging sticks having metal blades as well as with primitive plows pulled by cows. Sowing commences immediately after the rains begin or, in areas of flood irrigation, soon after the floodwaters subside. Durra,

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Figure 33. Round huts at Dinsor on the southern edge of the Scebeli - Giuba Plateau ($02^{\circ}24'N$ $42^{\circ}58'E$). This type of hut is used by both Somali and Negro cultivators.

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the main crop, is harvested by cutting off the grain cluster at the head of each plant. The cultivator's livestock browse on the stalks left in the field. Grain is stored in covered pits (see Figure 34) or, in a few areas, in large silos (see Figure 35). As needed, it is thrashed, winnowed, and ground into flour. Drought is a major threat to the crops, and birds ruin many crops as soon as the seed is sown; later, rodents and other animals attack the harvest. High platforms are often erected at strategic points for observing the fields so that marauders can be driven off.

c. Seasonal Grazing

The cultivators move their livestock herds from the permanent villages to the pastures during the rainy seasons. Near the coast, herds are moved to the zone of sand hills and dunes as soon as rains break the near drought of the Jilal dry season. As these pastures dry up the herds are returned to the privately owned pastures and fields at the home village.

d. Diet

The diet of the cultivators is similar to that of the pastoralists in that milk, milk products, and meat are very important and durra and tea are used occasionally. To this high-protein diet, however, are added maize or beans, fruit, and from time to time sugar.

C. Other Groups

1. Negroes

The approximately 100,000 Negroes who live in Somalia are divided into two groups: (1) the cultivators and hunters and (2) the outcasts attached to the nomadic clans.

a. Cultivators and Hunters

The Negro cultivators and hunters are mainly people of mixed origin (see Figures 23 and 24). The cultivators, who are more numerous than the hunters, are descendants of the pre-Somali cultivators and slaves who either escaped or were released by their Somali masters. The hunters are remnants of the hunting groups that first inhabited Somalia. Some Negroes are both cultivators and hunters. For the most part, the Negroes are settled along the two main rivers, but three small groups are found in the interrivers area and a very small number of purely hunting tribes (known collectively

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Figure 34. Pit for storing durra (grain sorghum) at Bullo Scevelo ($04^{\circ}41'N$ $45^{\circ}16'E$). The forked posts are designed to support a roof covered with earth. The durra heads look like a pile of stones at the base of the pit.

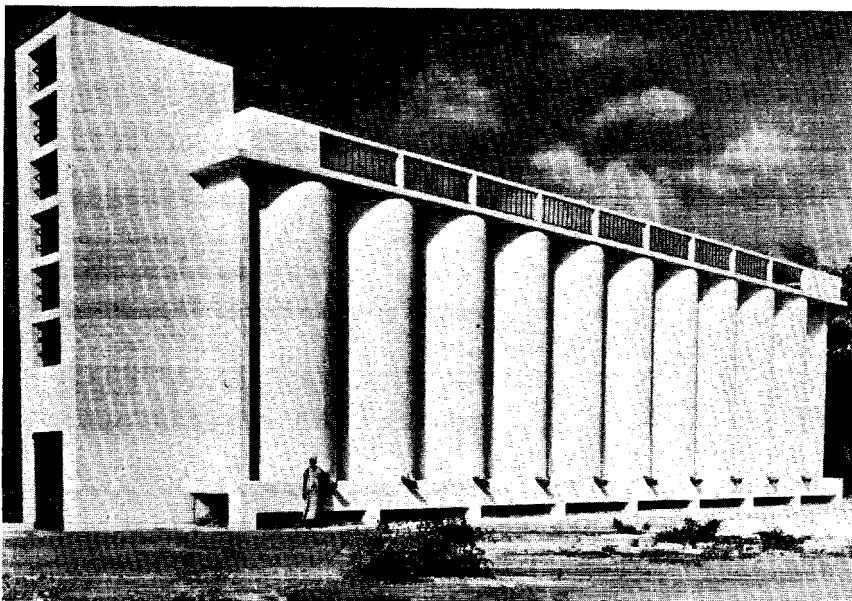


Figure 35. Grain silos at Afgoi ($02^{\circ}09'N$ $45^{\circ}07'E$). These new storage facilities are a marked improvement over traditional storage methods in Somalia.

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as the Waribi) are scattered across the plains west of the Giuba River.

The village is the basic element of the Negro social organization. The village is governed democratically by a group of elders, one of whom is chosen as chief. Although highly respected, the chief is regarded as no more than a first among equals. Several adjacent villages inhabited by members of the same tribe may be loosely tied together.

Most of the Negro tribes are closely federated with the Somali clan or subclan in whose territory they reside. Some have been adopted by Somali clans, and several have fabricated lineage systems linking themselves with their Somali patrons. Nevertheless, the Somali looks down on the adopted Negro and relegates him to an inferior social level. The following table lists the Negro tribes in each of the three areas where they are most numerous and, where relevant, names the Somali clan family and subclan to which the tribe is attached.

<u>Area</u>	<u>Negro Tribe</u>	<u>Somali Clan Family</u>	<u>Somali Subclan</u>
Scebeli River	Makanne	Hawiya	Badi-Addo
	Kabole	Hawiya	Mocal
	Shidle	Hawiya	Mobilen
Interriver Area	Helai	Rahanwein	Helai of Hakaba
	Eile	None	None
	Tunni Torre	Digil	Tunni
Giuba River	Gobawein	Rahanwein	Gassar Gudda
	Gosha	None	None
	Boni	None	None

The Negroes live in wattle-and-daub huts that are indistinguishable from those of the Somali cultivators. They are mostly engaged in crop cultivation, and Negroes along the two rivers also fish. Agricultural work is done by mutual-help parties similar to those of the Somali agricultural clan families. Besides cultivating their own crops, the Negroes often cultivate the fields of the Somalis while the owners tend their herds. Many Negroes also work for wages as laborers on plantations owned and operated by Italians. The Eile cultivate crops during the rainy season and hunt with dogs during the dry seasons. The Gobawein are primarily hunters. The Boni, who are widely distributed across the Trans-Giuba Plain, are essentially a hunting and fishing group but are gradually becoming cultivators and settling along the Giuba River between

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Gelib and Giamama.

The Negro diet includes durra, maize, beans, sugar, vegetable oil, butter, milk, tea, coffee, bananas, dates, mangoes, eggs, poultry, fish, and occasionally rice, goat meat, and game.

b. Outcasts

A few descendants of the original Negro hunters in Somalia live among the Somali nomadic clans but are considered to be outcasts and are treated as serfs or bondsmen. Although they are closely integrated into Somali society and pursue the Somali way of life, traditionally they have been despised by their masters. In recent years, however, many of the social barriers between the Somalis and the outcasts have fallen. Intermarriage between the two groups, which once was absolutely forbidden, takes place occasionally. Many of the bondsmen have left their Somali patrons to practice their skills in the towns.

The outcasts perform specific duties for their masters, in return for which they are paid and allowed to remain in the territory of the clans to which they are attached. Outcasts are found mainly among the Is'hak, Hawiya, and northern Darod clan families. Like other Negroes, the outcasts have a tribal organization. The outcast Tumul, who number about 2,250, are traditionally blacksmiths; they make spears, knives, arrowheads, swords, horse bits, and other metal objects, as well as amulets and charms for protection against disease and sickness. The outcast Yibir, who number about 1,300, and Midgan, who total nearly 10,000, are hunters and leatherworkers who make a variety of ornaments, straps, amulets, prayer mats, saddles, and sandals.

2. Coastal Peoples

A few (about 3,000 in 1948) Bajuni people are settled along the southern coast of Somalia and the nearby offshore islands from Chisimaio to Pate Island off the coast of Kenya. These are a people of obscure origin who closely resemble Yemenite Arabs. The Bajuni are mainly fishermen and sea traders and often serve as crewmembers on the dhows that ply the Indian Ocean coast. Seafood is their staple diet, supplemented by durra, coconuts, and a few animals. A small number (less than 1,000) of Amarani, mainly merchants and sailors, live in Brava, Merca, Mogadiscio, and Afgoi.

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3. Foreigners

In 1964 the foreign population in Somalia numbered approximately 35,000, of which about 30,000 were Arabs. Arabs have intermarried very little with Somalis, and many are descendants of Arab settlers. They are found mainly in the coastal towns and make a living as merchants, traders, urban landlords, teachers, and civil servants. Much of the coastal dhow trade is controlled by Arabs, and a large number are engaged in commercial fishing along the northern coasts. The Arabs generally form a tightly knit community within each town. Houses of one to three stories with whitewashed mud-brick walls, minarets, and high-walled inner courtyards, are typical of Arab areas (see Figure 36). One or more mosques are located in each Arab section.

The Italians in Somalia, who numbered 3,400 in 1964, play a very important role in the cash economy and in the government. Many own and/or operate plantations in irrigated sections along the lower courses of the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. Many others are skilled laborers or technicians for small industries or are high-level government officials. Practically all the Italians live in southern Somalia, and three-fourths of these are in the Mogadiscio area.

The majority of the remaining Europeans and Americans are in Somalia temporarily and are employed chiefly by foreign governments, oil prospecting companies, and UN organizations.

Approximately 1,200 Indians and Pakistanis also resided in Somalia in 1964, employed mainly as retail clerks for Italian and Somali merchants. Most of the goldsmiths and silversmiths in Mogadiscio are Indians.

D. Religion, Magic, and Witchcraft

More than 95 percent of the population of Somalia is Sunni Muslim. The penetration of Islam into Somali life varies considerably within the country. In general, orthodox Islam is strongest in the coastal towns; among the nomadic pastoralists it often appears to be little more than a thin veneer over Somali tradition and custom. Most of the Negroes are animists.

The Somali prays three to five times a day -- generally before dawn, at noon, in midafternoon, after sunset, and after dark. When praying in the open, a man places his shoes, spear, or rifle before him as the boundary of his place of prayer, and no one should pass between him and it or even close to it.

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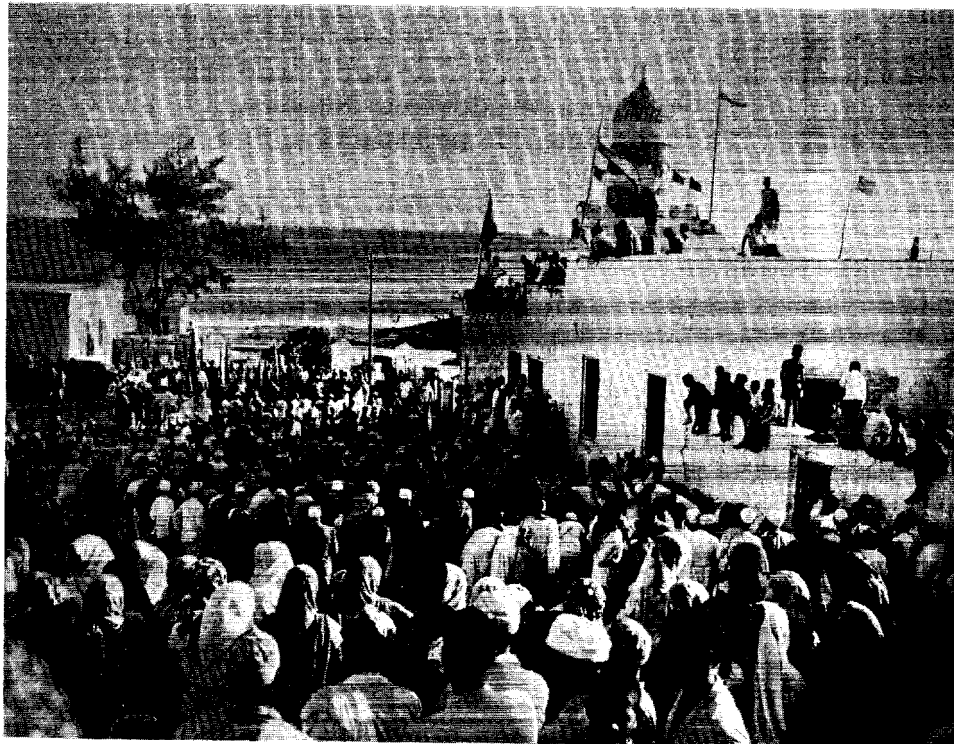


Figure 36. Crowd gathered for a Muslim festival at Merca (01° 43'N 44° 53'E). The whitewashed building and walled courtyard are typical of the Arab sections of coastal cities.

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The Somali does not eat meat that has not been slaughtered by a Muslim, and the animal must have died by having its throat cut. Pork, wild boar, and warthog are forbidden foods, as they are considered unclean by all Muslims. It is a sin even to touch one of these animals. It is also a sin to touch a dog, because it, too, is considered unclean. Consumption of alcoholic beverages is uncommon, partly because it is contrary to Islamic Law.

Ramadan, the Muslim month of dawn-to-dusk fasting, is most closely observed in the towns, where the most devout spend the daylight hours in prayer, sleep, and fasting. Over-eating after nightfall is common during Ramadan. In the interior of Somalia the rigors of pastoral life generally limit strict adherence to Ramadan.

Somali women are free from many of the religious restrictions placed on women in other parts of the Islamic world. After marriage they do not go into seclusion or wear the veil so typical elsewhere. Islam allows each man four wives, but only the very wealthy Somalis can afford the bride-price for more than one. Bride-prices range from 3 to 50 camels or other livestock of equivalent value.

Numerous tariqas (religious training centers for the wadaad) are scattered throughout Somalia. Each has its mosque or tomb of the settlement founder. The land around the tariqa is held and cultivated collectively by the residents. Upon completion of the training period, the wadaad (see Figure 25) leave the tariqa and wander among the nomadic camps and settlements, stopping occasionally to set up schools for teaching the rudiments of the Koran to the children. This training generally entails little more than memorizing a few verses from the Koran and perhaps learning to read a bit of Arabic. The main tariqas in northern Somalia are at Zeila, Berbera, Hargeisa, and Berato; those in southern Somalia are at Mogadiscio, Merca, Brava, and Bardera.

Although Islam is the state religion, freedom of religion is guaranteed. As of 1959, there were two Protestant missions -- the Sudanese Interior Mission and the Mennonite Mission -- which carried on social and educational activities. Roman Catholic missions have operated in Somalia since the early 1900's. Neither Catholics nor Protestants, however, attempt to proselytize.

Magic, sorcery, and witchcraft play much smaller roles in Somalia than in most of Negro Africa. They are probably most important to the Negro minority in the south. Some clan elders

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are considered to possess the powers to bless or curse their followers. The elder's glance is the "evil or burning eye," which is so powerful that it is dangerous for rival elders to look directly at each other. Many clans are considered by legend to be related to particular animals. The Abgal Matin (Hawiya clan family) believe that one of their ancestors was reared by a lioness and consequently that their people are invulnerable to attack by lions, whom they address by a secret name. Rainmaking ceremonies of pre-Islamic origin, with a heavy Islamic overgloss, are common.

The Somalis consider certain foods taboo for mystical reasons. To eat the head, tripe, claw, or hoof of an animal is regarded as ignoble and debasing. The eating of fish, snakes, or the hippopotamus is generally despised. The Somali also do not eat horse or donkey meat, ducks, pigeons, turtle-doves, quail, and small birds, but they express no special aversion to these animals.

The outcast tribes attached to the pastoral clans are regarded by the Somalis as skilled in witchcraft and magic. Women of the Midgan tribe of outcasts perform the operation of infibulation, which all Somali women undergo in childhood. Amulets and charms of the despised Yibir tribesmen are sought to bless each newborn Somali child, and they are also considered desirable at marriage ceremonies.

E. Education and Language

1. Education

Very few inhabitants of Somalia receive a modern education. The literacy rate is estimated to be between 5 and 10 percent. The only form of indigenous education entails the memorization and recitation of parts or all of the Koran. The table below shows the number of schools at various levels and their enrollment. Figures for the first three levels are dated June 1964; the dates of those for the vocational and technical schools are unknown; and the enrollment given for the university represents the total number of students for the period 1954-60.

<u>School Level</u>	<u>Number of Schools</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>		
		<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>
Elementary	269	16,376	4,472	20,848
Intermediate	33	3,412	705	4,115
Secondary	12	1,055	32	1,085

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<u>School Level</u>	<u>Number of Schools</u>	<u>Enrollment</u>		
		<u>Males</u>	<u>Females</u>	<u>Total</u>
Intermediate vocational (adult)	7	na	na	13,000
Other technical	7	na	na	na
University	1	na	na	336

English is used in the northern schools and Italian in the southern. Less than 25 percent of those beginning elementary school reach the fourth grade, and the dropout rate is even greater in the secondary schools. A major problem is the acute shortage of well-trained Somali instructors.

The only training at university level in Somalia is provided by the University Institute in Mogadiscio. Of the 336 students enrolled at the university from 1954 to 1960, 58 received diplomas. The Institute offers advanced training only in law, history, economics, and political science. Instruction is in Italian.

An extensive fellowship program has made it possible for many Somalis to obtain secondary, university, and professional or vocational education in foreign countries, mainly in Italy and Egypt. In 1959-60, there were 290 students in Italy, 232 in Egypt, 30 in the United States, 15 in the USSR, 8 in the United Kingdom, and 4 at the United Nations in New York. Most of these students were in secondary and vocational schools. Between 1959 and 1962 approximately 175 Somalis received university degrees in Italy and 40 in all other countries.

Somalia's first Five-Year Plan (1963 through 1967) calls for the construction of new schools and the standardization of the entire educational system. Arabic will be used as the medium of instruction in all elementary schools until it can be replaced by the Somali language. At the intermediate and secondary levels English will be used until the Somali language is developed sufficiently to replace it, at which time English will remain a compulsory second language. Standardization also calls for the emphasis on Somali culture in the curriculum. It will be many years before the goals of this Five-Year Plan are achieved.

2. Language

For the most part the Somali language is mutually intelligible to all Somalis, and it is spoken and understood

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by many of the Bantu-speaking Negro cultivators in the south. Nevertheless, dialectal differences do occur. Somali is not a written language, and although several attempts at establishing a script have been made, none have been accepted.

The administrative languages are English in the north and Italian in the south. The Bajuni speak Swahili, and the Amarani speak Hamarani, a Swahili dialect. Many Somalis, especially those on the coast, understand Arabic.

F. Health Conditions and Medical Facilities

The general level of health in Somalia is quite poor. Statistical data are not available on the incidence of diseases, as most afflicted people never receive medical treatment, but numerous diseases are known to be widespread and endemic. The main diseases throughout the country include malaria, tuberculosis, typhoid fever, dysentery, ancylostomiasis (hookworm), trachoma, and yaws, as well as respiratory, venereal, and intestinal diseases. Schistosomiasis (bilharziasis) is commonly carried in the waters of the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers and in the irrigation waters nearby. Leprosy occurs occasionally.

Except in some of the populated centers, even the most elementary sanitary precautions are not practiced. In the larger towns the bucket and deep-pit latrine system is used, with disposal to the sea by barge where possible. Septic tanks have been installed in a few places, mainly hospitals, government buildings, and European homes. Other areas have no sanitary facilities.

Malnutrition and vitamin deficiencies are widespread among the Somalis. The diet of the nomads is particularly poorly balanced and lacking in green vegetables and fruits, but deficiencies are less pronounced among the cultivators. Except in a few isolated places, drinking water from wells, streams, and ponds is polluted and often too salty to drink. Serious famine occurs when the rains fail and the normally wet season becomes another dry season. Waterholes, wells, and springs dry up, livestock die, crops fail, and the Somalis go hungry and thirsty. Desert locusts are a periodic scourge to crops in the south. The incidence of diseases increases sharply during and after especially harsh droughts and famines, when the people are undernourished and lose much of their resistance to disease.

The availability of medical facilities and well-trained physicians and technicians varies considerably. In all of Somalia there were 19 hospitals with 2,375 beds in 1964.

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The capacity of most hospitals ranges from 20 to 100 beds. The best medical service is at Hargeisa and Mogadiscio, and away from these towns it is generally poor. Hargeisa has a general hospital with 192 beds and a tuberculosis hospital with 175 beds. Four of the largest hospitals are in Mogadiscio, with a combined bed capacity of 1,122. A fifth hospital, with 600 beds, was under construction in Mogadiscio in 1964. Several dispensaries and infirmaries, with a total of 2,257 beds, are scattered widely throughout the country. A leper settlement on Alessandra Island in the Giuba River has 150 beds. In 1962 the entire country was served by 85 physicians (mainly Italian), 56 medical assistants, and 392 nurses, mostly concentrated in a few of the larger towns.

G. Attitudes and Loyalties

A variety of factors, both unifying and disruptive, influence the attitudes and loyalties of the Somalis both as a group and as individuals. Common ties of culture, religion, and language foster the appeal of national unity and form the basis for the movement to unify all ethnic Somalis into a "Greater Somalia." The emotional appeal for unification is tempered somewhat by several disruptive factors. The individual Somali nomad or cultivator struggling to maintain his meager existence in a harsh environment may find it most difficult to give more than moral support to any venture aiming to unify all Somalis politically. National unity is hampered also by the lack of a script for the Somali language, the cultural cleavage between the pastoralists and the cultivators, local feuds and rivalries, and poor communications. Northern Somalis, who were under British colonial administration and who use English as an administrative language, resent the political dominance and neglect they feel they have experienced at the hands of the numerically superior southern Somalis, who use Italian as an administrative language. Students from northern Somalia, who have learned English as a second language, are not qualified to enter the University Institute in Mogadiscio until they learn Italian.

The loyalties of the individual Somali are influenced greatly by the lineage system into which he is born and in which he lives and dies. His loyalty is to his dia-paying group, his primary lineage, his subclan, his clan, his clan family, and finally to the Somali nation in that order. The Somali is strongly individualistic and independent in all his relationships, both within and outside the clan. As an individual he feels superior to all others regardless of his circumstances, and he strongly believes that he is subject to no authority except that of Allah.

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A stranger in a pastoral hamlet or agricultural village is treated with customary Islamic hospitality but also is eyed with mistrust. Italians are generally regarded well, especially in the south. The British, on the other hand, formerly were highly esteemed, mainly in the north, but have lost much popularity because of the break in diplomatic relations between Somalia and the United Kingdom in 1963, occasioned by the dispute over the northeastern part of Kenya. Although the Somalis proudly claim Arab ancestry and practice the Islamic faith, they -- especially the nomads -- generally look on the Arabs with disdain. They also show considerable distaste toward the Negroes. Somalis, including those in Ethiopia, are especially hostile to their long-standing enemy, the Ethiopian Government.

H. Paramilitary Potential

The paramilitary potential of the various peoples in Somalia is difficult to evaluate. No group has a significant potential. It is doubtful that either the Somalis or the Negro tribes associated with them would work against the central government at this time. Somalis along the Ethiopian and Kenyan boundaries might possibly have some potential for paramilitary operations, as they have long been involved in dissident action against the Ethiopian Government and against the British and Kenyan Governments in Kenya. The Somali is not averse to a good fight and is usually skilled in desert guerrilla tactics. It should be remembered, however, that the individualistic Somali is his own boss and normally takes poorly to discipline. In general, dissident activity is easiest to promote during the rainy seasons. During drought periods the Somali's overriding concern is for the welfare of his herds and family, and no Somali is likely to be induced to leave his herds. Also, dissident activity can be controlled easily in the drought periods by patrolling the few permanent waterholes and wells.

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V. Politics and Government

The material contained in this chapter is essentially a condensation of material to be found in the NIS General Survey, Somali Republic, July 1966.

A. General

The Somali Republic (Somalia), which became independent in mid-1960, has a paucity of natural resources, a population lacking in education and technical skills, and little experience with a modern governmental system. About 75 percent of the approximately 2,400,000 inhabitants are nomads, who are warlike, fiercely individualistic, and unused to any political authority higher than that of their clan elders. Clan rivalries are rife and form the basis for political allegiance. Antagonisms also exist between the two parts of the country, which as a result of their colonial experience have different educational and administrative systems.

The inhabitants share a common language, a thousand year old cultural heritage based on Islam, and their traditional society is characterized by well-evolved and generally accepted arrangements for composing differences among rival clan groups. The leaders of the independent Somali Republic have paid careful attention to conciliating opposition politicians and factions and to balancing the government on a tribal, clan basis.

The current Government of the Somali Republic is led by a small group of western-educated Somali politicians. Head of State and President of the Republic is Aden Abdulla Osman. Prime Minister Abdirazak Hagi Hussien is the government leader and head of the major political party, the Somali Youth League. The government led by these individuals since late 1964, with strong support from the Minister of Interior, Abdulkadir Mohamed Aden, and the Commandant of Police, Mohamed Abseir, has proved to be the more capable and more moderate of the two governments the Somali Republic has had since it became independent.

The domestic objectives of the leaders of the Somali Republic are to build a modern, democratic state and to modernize the country's primitive economy. These objectives have been impeded by the country's preoccupation with another goal: the creation of a greater Somalia by annexing French Somaliland and the Somali-inhabited parts of Ethiopia and Kenya. This irredentist issue underlies the Somalis' determination to maintain large armed forces, which constitute an enormous drain on the country's limited budget and on its tiny

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reservoir of literate, technically trained persons. In turn, the desire to keep large armed forces caused the first Somali governments to draw closer to the USSR, which offered military aid in substantially larger quantities than did the Western countries. By early 1966 the USSR had established a substantial economic aid program as well, and the Communist Chinese a more modest one. Partly as a result of such aid programs the Communist countries exert substantial influence on Somali politicians. Since the Abdirazak government came to power in 1964, however, it has tended to follow a more genuinely nonaligned policy on international questions, has sought to reduce tensions in the neighboring countries, and has given priority to the country's internal economic and social problems.

B. Major Domestic Problems and Policies

Prime Minister Abdirazak places emphasis on internal social and economic development. One of the major goals is to establish a modern, efficient governmental mechanism and to extend its control over the country's outlying areas. He has repeatedly emphasized that the selection of both high and low-ranking governmental officials was to be based on ability and has repeatedly described and extolled the work habits he expects of officials in a modern state. Prime Minister Abdirazak also advocates the continued use of foreign experts and consultants.

The objective of improving the effectiveness of the governmental mechanism includes improvement of the police, as the police are in many rural areas the major part of the government's presence. The Somali Government, with US assistance, is engaged in an extensive program to improve the training and equipment of the Somali police.

A second major goal of the Abdirazak government is to raise living standards and to modernize Somali society. This goal faces formidable obstacles. Somalia is poor in natural resources and most of its population are pastoral nomads living on a subsistence level. In October 1965 Prime Minister Abdirazak discussed his programs with personnel of the US Embassy. He stressed that primary emphasis should be placed on increasing productivity. He plans to establish a rural development agency with foreign experts to improve agricultural productivity and to develop an "ever-normal granary" under which the government would buy and store grain. The Prime Minister plans also to improve cattle and livestock production. In late 1965 the Prime Minister solicited US support for a program to assist nomads in parts of Somalia adjacent to Kenya in adopting sedentary ways.

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A third major domestic objective of the Abdirazak government is to supplant clan and parochial loyalties with a sense of national loyalty. The government is attempting, with US Government and other foreign assistance, to improve its information services, especially among persons living under traditional conditions. The government is also trying in various ways to break down the distinction between the two parts of the country. Abdirazak and Aden wish to conciliate the Somalis in the former UK-administered northern part of the country who have various grievances against the central government.

All Somali governments have stressed the fourth goal, that of preserving the vigor of Somalia's Islamic heritage. This requires little governmental effort, as virtually all Somali are Muslims, most of them deeply devout.

There is little opposition to the major domestic goals of the Abdirazak government outside of the ordinary political contest for power. The Communist-oriented Somali Democratic Union (SDU) is the one exception. It favors policies similar to those in Communist countries and has called for the nationalization of foreign-owned firms in Somalia. There is no indication, however, of any broad popular understanding or acceptance of SDU domestic policies.

C. Structure of the Government

Somalia is, according to its constitution, a "representative, democratic, unitary republic" in which executive, legislative, and judicial powers are separated and for which the main source of law is Islamic doctrine. The present constitution of Somalia was the provisional constitution of the Italian territory, which the representatives of the former UK protectorate accepted and approved by national referendum in June 1961.

A large part of the constitution is devoted to enumeration of individual rights, but these are balanced by qualifying provisions by which the government can exercise tight control over the citizenry. Amendments may be proposed by one-fifth of the members of the National Assembly or by 10,000 electors. To become valid they must be approved by the National Assembly in two separate votes -- first by a simple then by a two-thirds majority -- at intervals of at least three months.

The president is elected by the National Assembly by secret ballot for a six-year term. He may be re-elected consecutively only once. The president must be a Muslim, his parents and his wife must be ethnic Somali native-born citizens, and he must be at least 45 years old.

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The president appoints and dismisses the prime minister and appoints, upon the prime minister's recommendation, ministers, under secretaries of state, high officials, and military commanders, and he is the commander of the armed forces. He authorizes the presentation of draft laws to the National Assembly. He may dissolve the assembly "whenever it cannot discharge its functions," although he may not dissolve it during its first year in office nor during his last year in office. The president also has power to issue decrees under certain conditions.

Another power of the Somali president which is not normally found under a parliamentary system is that of vetoing legislation. The president has 60 days in which to promulgate a law. He may return a measure to the assembly for "new discussion and decision." If the assembly approves it for a second time by a two-thirds majority, the president must promulgate the law.

Ministers and under secretaries -- who are also presidential appointees -- need not be parliamentary deputies, although they must possess the same qualification.

A new government must gain a vote of confidence from the National Assembly within 30 days of its formation. Confidence or no-confidence is shown by a simple majority in an open vote. A motion of no-confidence may be proposed at any time by 10 deputies, but may not be brought up until five days after its presentation.

The National Assembly is made up of deputies elected to a five-year term by universal, free, direct, and secret suffrage. There are 123 deputies -- 90 from the South and 33 from the North. All citizens 25 years of age are eligible to be deputies.

If the president dissolves the assembly, he must hold new elections within 60 days. The assembly holds two sessions a year, starting in April and in October. It may be convened in extraordinary session upon the initiative of its president or at the request of the President of the Republic, of the government, or of one-fourth of the deputies.

The central government has administrative authority over the 8 regional governors and through them over the 47 district commissioners.

A government-sponsored law designed to decentralize the government by setting up a system of elected local councils for both urban and rural areas was passed in July 1963, but

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had not been implemented in early 1966. Some elected municipal councils set up prior to independence still exist in the larger towns of the South, and local government councils in those of the North.

Islamic doctrine is the main source of Somali law. Laws must conform to the general principles of Islam as well as to the constitution. The Sharia, or Muslim law, remains in force on the local level in regard to social and religious matters. A uniform Somali penal code is being devised by a commission established in 1960.

The constitution provides for a Supreme Court and a Constitutional Court. The Supreme Court at Mogadiscio has jurisdiction over the whole territory of the state in civil, penal, administrative, financial, and other matters as specified by law. The Supreme Court has a president and five other judges, two of whom must be Qadis--specialists in Muslim law. The Constitutional Court is made up of the Supreme Court justices plus two members appointed for three years by the President of the Republic and two elected for three years by the assembly. It determines the constitutionality of legislative enactments.

The court system below the Supreme Court comprises two Courts of Appeal with three sections: general, assize, and military; eight Regional Courts with two sections: general and assize; and 47 District Courts with two sections: civil and criminal.

In each district there is also a Qadi, whose competence is limited to civil matters among Moslems -- including marriages, divorces, and inheritance. These matters are handled under Sharia law and customary law. Each region has a tribunal of three Qadis which receives appeals from the district Qadis. All cases, including civil cases between Moslems, may be appealed to the Regional Courts, the Courts of Appeal, and to the Supreme Court.

D. Political Dynamics

Despite the brevity of their experience, the Somalis by early 1966 had achieved a stable, workable government characterized by substantial popular interest and had resolved many of the internal rivalries and antagonisms peacefully. The inhabitants, sharing a common language, religion, and heritage have the foundations for a sense of national identity. For centuries Somali clan groupings, clans, and lineages have engaged in continuous and often violent competition for water

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and grazing areas for their flocks, but in the process they evolved a political system based upon well-established procedures designed to maintain peace among rival ethnic elements. In the mid-1960's the major contending political forces are still the various clan groups, clans, and lineages.

European rule from the closing decades of the 19th century until independence in 1960 resulted in few changes in the countryside and generally buttressed the influence of traditional leaders. Colonial rule also was little felt in the two urban areas, Mogadiscio and Hargeisa. Today Somalia's tiny urbanized political elite still have strong ties with their respective ethnic groups. It is these ties that are the basis for political power.

There is a cleavage between the former UK-governed and the former Italian-governed parts of the country. The northern portion enjoyed superior educational services and longer and more systematic preparation for self-government. Some educated northerners consider that less qualified southerners have been given preference in government jobs, that the north has not received its share of public works programs, and have chafed over the restrictions on commerce by the central government.

Ethnic and regional competition -- compounded by personal rivalries among the leaders -- underlies the workings of the government. Cabinets and government posts are usually parcelled out in accordance with clan groups and clans. In mid-1964 the National Assembly rejected the first Abdirazak cabinet, which had been selected on the basis of individual ability, largely because it did not contain the proper balance of ethnic elements.

Similarly a convention is developing that the three top offices -- Presidency of the Republic, Presidency of the National Assembly, and Prime Ministry -- should be divided among the three major clan families, the Darod, the Is'hak, and the Hawiya.

Politics tends to be highly personal, and the country's politicians, who draw support from various ethnic and regional elements, continually combine and recombine into temporary alliances and coalitions.

In contrast to the situation in many African countries, the bulk of the Somali are not apathetic about politics. For the highly individualistic and competitive Somali nomads, the rough and tumble of national and local politics is an exciting

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spectator sport -- partly because each person is interested in having leaders of his own ethnic group gain positions of influence and partly because he may receive hospitality or small sums of money from candidates at election times.

E. Political Parties

Political parties in Somalia are loose and temporary groupings of leading political figures and ethnically-based interest groups. In general there are few differences in the programs of the parties and party discipline is difficult. Factions of clan or lineage groups often shift party allegiance frequently.

Some 18 parties participated in the March 1964 legislative elections, but only four were of any consequence. The Somali Youth League (SYL), which has governed Somalia since independence, dwarfs the other three. The SYL grew out of an underground independence movement which was formed in the former Italian colony in 1943. The SYL stresses the incorporation into Somalia of all Somali-inhabited territories, full integration of the former UK and Italian administered parts of Somalia, and the economic modernization of the country. The SYL is dominated by the top executive officials of the Government of the Somali Republic. Prime Minister Abdirazak is Secretary General. As Secretary General, Abdirazak appointed the 23-man central committee of the SYL, and he serves as its chairman. An informal governing body in the party consists of the party central committee plus the cabinet and other members of the National Assembly who belong to the SYL -- about 75 persons in all.

Much of the opposition to Somali governments has come from within the ranks of the SYL itself. Party leaders can never be sure of the support of their own deputies, who sometimes vote against the government. The current major anti-government faction within the SYL is a radical, more anti-Western group headed by former Prime Minister Abdirasid. In 1964 the SYL won 69 of the 123 seats in the National Assembly, but has added to its strength since by crossovers.

The Socialist National Congress (SNC) attempts to draw its main support from the inhabitants of the former UK Protectorate, especially the Is'hak clan grouping. It also seeks support among the Hawiya of the South. The programs of the SNC differ little from those of the SYL. It won 22 seats in 1964. The leading SNC figure is Scek Ali Giumale.

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The Hizbia Dastuur Muustiquil Somaliyad (The Somali National Constitutional Party -- HDMS) draws support from the semi-settled agricultural population of the southernmost parts of the country. It aims to combat discrimination against its supporters, the Digil and Rahanwein clan families, who traditionally have had status inferior to that of the nomads who are the dominant element in Somali society. It plays a limited political role. It occupies 9 seats. Leaders of the HDMS include Scek Mohammad Ahmed ("Boffo") and Hami Muctar Malak.

The Somali Democratic Union (SDU) is an exception to the general uniformity of programs of Somali political parties. The SDU, formed in early 1962 from three smaller parties, is a loose, poorly disciplined grouping of opportunist politicians who are spokesman for a combination of clan groupings. It is the political home of persons with a radical, virulently anti-Western outlook. The SDU is socilaist in outlook and favors confiscation of foreign-owned property. Most SDU members do not regard themselves as Communists, but certain of their leaders have regularly been paid subventions from local Soviet and Chinese Communist sources, and some of these leaders have travelled extensively to the Communist countries. The leaders of the SDU are Yusuf Osman Samantar ("Berdaad") and Haji Mohamad Hussein. The SDU in the past has drawn much of its support from the Darod, one of the larger of the clan groupings. It won 15 seats in the 1964 elections. Eight other parties received only one seat each, and six parties elected no candidates at all.

Elections to the National Assembly were held in March 1964. Because there is no census of population, the outgoing Assembly set up constituencies on the basis of negotiations among its own members dividing the legislature's 123 seats among 45 electoral districts. Individuals could run for office only as candidates of a political party, not as independents.

The voter could choose between party lists for his district, not between individual candidates. After the results were tallied, the election officials in each district divided the district's seats among the candidates on the basis of the party's share of the district's total vote.

The official vote total (908,000) and the percentage won by the SYL (52 percent) are credible, and the election appears to have been a reasonably accurate expression of voter preference, even though some irregularities did occur. Immediately after election some of the new deputies elected from other parties defected to the SYL.

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F. Foreign Policy

The Somali Republic is almost totally concerned with the union of the Somali territories, by which the Somalis mean the eventual annexation of the Somali-inhabited portions of the three territories which border Somalia. The union of the former British and Italian Somalilands in 1960 brought most of the Somalis under self rule but left a substantial number -- perhaps 600,000 to 1,000,000 -- in either Ethiopia, Kenya, or French Somaliland. All three countries refuse to cede any territory or to grant any special status for their Somali population. Secondary goals have been to enhance Somalia's prestige and influence in both the African and the Arab worlds, and to obtain military, economic, and technical assistance from a variety of donors while maintaining a policy of nonalignment in dealings with the great powers.

Former Prime Minister Abdirascid Ali Shermarke, in power from 1960 to March of 1964 and now the leading opposition politician, favored vigorous pressure on Ethiopia and Kenya by arming and inciting Somalis in these countries; close ties with the United Arab Republic, Algeria, and other radical African countries; the acceptance of substantial amounts of military and economic aid from the USSR and other Communist countries; and an increasingly hostile and critical attitude toward the United States and Western European countries.

The current government, that of Prime Minister Abdirazak Hagi Hussen, has followed more moderate foreign policies in accordance with its preoccupation with Somalia's internal economic problems. Abdirazak has curtailed somewhat the arming of Somali tribesmen in Ethiopia and Kenya, has tried to reduce tensions with these countries, has made efforts to reduce Somalia's isolation from the other newly independent nations of Africa, and has taken a more genuinely nonaligned position on East-West issues.

The border between Ethiopia and the Somali Republic is in dispute. Ethnic Somalis are the principal inhabitants of the eastern quarter of Ethiopia known as the Ogaden. Each year nomads, who are citizens of the Somali Republic, spend several months of the year in Ethiopia. These migrants have compounded Ethiopia's already substantial problems in maintaining order among the Ogaden Somalis. The Ethiopians claim that the migrants incite the Ogaden Somalis to violence; the Somalis charge that the Ethiopians are excessively tough on the migrants and that Ethiopia has incited Ogaden Somalis to cross into Somalia and provoke disorders.

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In 1959 the Ogaden Somalis, aroused by the impending union of the two Somalilands, formed a small underground political organization, Nazrullah, and organized a guerrilla force known as the Ogaden Liberation Army. Mogadiscio apparently did not instigate this activity but has provided the guerrillas with safehaven, weapons, and funds. It has never been able to completely control the zealots.

In February and March 1964, disorders in the Ogaden precipitated open clashes between the Ethiopian and Somali regular forces until a ceasefire was arranged at Khartoum in March 1964.

In Kenya, the Somalis make up less than 2 percent of Kenya's population, but they inhabit a substantial part of Kenya's total area. Contention over this area has contributed to serious instability in northeastern Kenya and has precluded any but minimal contacts between the two governments.

In mid-1963 the Abdirascid government intensified press and radio propaganda directed at the Kenyan Somalis, and later permitted the Kenyan Somali guerrillas -- known as shifta -- who were raiding Kenyan police posts to use the Somali Republic as a sanctuary. The Abdirazak government has attempted to curtail this activity, but the Kenyan Somalis continue to receive arms and money from opposition politicians in Somalia and possibly from the Soviets and Communist Chinese.

In December 1965, Abdirazak and President Aden met Kenyan President Jomo Kenyatta in Arusha, Tanzania to try to persuade him to acknowledge Mogadiscio's special interest in the Kenyan Somalis. Their views were far apart and the talks fails.

Somalis make up just under half of the population of French Somaliland. They appear to have very little enthusiasm for union with Somalia, however, largely because they are better off economically than their cousins across the border. The French, who have substantial military forces in the area, have given no indication that they are willing to loosen their hold on the territory, which is both profitable and of strategic interest.

The Abdirazak government has turned part of its propaganda and diplomatic efforts for a greater Somalia against French Somaliland. These propaganda and diplomatic moves seem directed largely at demonstrating to his own countrymen that Abdirazak is as militant as anyone in pushing for a greater Somalia. Indeed, gestures toward French Somaliland may be designed to

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distract attention from his more conciliatory policies toward Ethiopia and Kenya.

The Somalis are ethnically distinct and geographically remote from most of the rest of Africa. Under the best of circumstances they would probably play a limited role in relations with the rest of the continent. Under the former Abdirascid government, moreover, Somalia's single-minded pursuit of its Greater Somalia objectives left it largely isolated in African affairs. The major targets of Somalia's irridentist claims -- Kenya and Ethiopia -- both enjoyed substantially more influence than did Somalia, and their leaders enjoyed continent-wide prestige. Also, most African countries are concerned with holding together their own disparate collections of ethnic elements and are loath to set a precedent by advocating dismemberment of Kenya or Ethiopia.

The Abdirizak government, in order to increase its support, has taken an interest in wider African matters, such as the Congo and Rhodesia problems, and has indicated an interest in closer ties with other East African countries. Somalia, a Muslim state, has also looked to the Arab states -- primarily the Sudan and UAR -- for support in its anti-Ethiopian policies. It has, however, had no notable success in winning either African or Arab friends.

The USSR has gained a strong position in Somalia because of its \$35 million military aid program and its \$52 million economic development program. Under a military aid agreement made in November 1963 the USSR has supplied substantial arms and equipment, has some 175-250 Soviets training the army, and is training Somali officers in the Soviet Union. Although the Soviet economic program is having trouble, the military program appears to be going well.

The Chinese Communists have a considerably more modest aid program than that of the Soviets. Under an aid agreement made in 1963, the Chinese Communists were to establish collective farms, a road, and a textile plant. As of early 1966 none of these projects was in progress. Communist Chinese activity to date has been greatest in the field of cultural affairs and propaganda. The Abdirazak government's 1964 program strongly reiterated Somalia's position that Communist China (People's Republic of China) should be admitted to the UN.

The Abdirazak government has moved away from the blatantly pro-Communist line followed under Abdirascid and follows a more neutral course.

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The close relationship between the United States and Ethiopia, including extensive military support and arrangements for the large Kagnev communications facility at Asmara, has been a persistent irritant to US relations with Somalia. US influence declined under the Abdirascid regime, but more recently US-Somali relations have been gradually improving.

The United States is engaged in a substantial program to equip and train the Somali Police Force. It also has an economic and technical aid program geared largely to such long range programs as the development of a modern port at Chisimaio. In 1965 the United States provided emergency relief, and in 1966 there were a substantial number of Peace Corps Volunteers at work in Somalia.

Italy and West Germany were active in Somalia in early 1966. Italy provides a budgetary subsidy and pays Somalia an artificially high price for bananas, the country's main export. In 1965 about 2,500 Italians were still working in the Republic, most of them in supervisory and technical positions in the government or in agriculture. West Germany has a modest aid program for the Somali police, but Somali appreciation of this is diminished by their annoyance at the larger West German aid program for the Ethiopian police.

The influence of the non-Communist countries in Somalia is restricted by the absence of the United Kingdom and France -- the result of the pervasive importance of the Greater Somalia question in Somali foreign affairs. The Somalis broke relations with the UK in March 1963 over the handling of Kenya's independence, and France's influence is minimal because of the impasse over French Somaliland.

The Somali Republic joined the United Nations on 3 September 1960, two months after it became independent. During its first two years of UN membership Somalia became a member of the Food and Agriculture Organization, the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization, the International Labor Organization, the Council for Technical Cooperation in Africa, the United Nations Children's Fund, the International Monetary Fund, the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development, and in 1964 it joined the International Civil Aviation Organization. The Republic is also associated with the Organization for European Economic Cooperation.

G. Subversion

Except for endemic tribal and regional antagonisms, the Somali Republic has few discontented elements. The

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overwhelming majority of its inhabitants are insulated from modern economic and social developments since about 75 percent are nomads. Most of the rest are sedentary cultivators and herdsmen who also live largely outside the money economy.

Some disruption of traditional living patterns is taking place in Somalia as the government attempts to modernize the country's primitive economy, but social dislocation has not yet produced any sizable dissatisfied minority groups vulnerable to subversive manipulation, or created social pressures capable of contributing to instability and unrest. Most urban dwellers still identify themselves with their particular clan or lineage groups and have not yet become a separate, politically influential group. Organized labor has little political leverage for there are only about 35,000 Somalis engaged in paid employment and no more than 6,000 union members. The labor organizations are closely supervised by the government. Students make up only a small fraction of the population, and are not a major source of dissidence.

Except for a coup attempt in 1961, led by a UK-trained junior army officer from the northern part of the country who resented being subordinated to less well-qualified officers from the former Italian part of the country, all indications have been that the armed forces are loyal to the civilian authorities. As of early 1966 nearly 600 army officers and several air force officers had been trained in the USSR and some of them have shown pro-Soviet attitudes.

A major stabilizing influence in Somalia is the political system which has thus far offered rival ethnic groups -- about which political activity centers -- an opportunity to pursue their interests peacefully and constitutionally. Persons and ethnically based political factions in opposition to the government have rarely been subject to repressive measures.

The competition for political power does, however, create openings for foreign influences and exploitation. Most Somali politicians will accept help from any quarter, corruption and venality are widespread, and Somali politicians frequently shift allegiance and generally do not consider the acceptance of bribes or favors as a permanent commitment.

Hagi Mohamad Hussein and Yusuf Osman Samantar ("Berdaad"), the two principal leaders of the SDU, have had extensive personal contacts with Communists both in Somalia and abroad and the Communists reportedly rely on them to help select students to

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be sent to Communist countries. Prior to the formation of the SDU in 1962, Hagi Mohamed and "Berdaad" were receiving money from the Communists. Since 1962, the Communists are reported to have given the SDU about US \$70,000, most of it coming from the Chinese.

The efforts of the Soviet Union and the Chinese Communists to establish a foothold in the Somali Republic and expand their influence within the country have met with considerable success. Shortly after independence, the Somali Government recognized the USSR and the People's Republic of China, and both countries quickly established diplomatic missions in Mogadiscio. The Soviets soon inaugurated an ambitious trade and aid program, and at the end of 1964 it was estimated that there were 250 Soviet civilian technical experts and 100 military specialists and instructors in Somalia. In mid-1965 there were only about 40 Communist Chinese in Somalia, consisting of about 25 persons with diplomatic or press status and a medical relief team of 15 persons. During the same period some 850 students -- a high proportion of the total number of Somali students overseas -- were in the USSR and in Eastern Europe. A very few were in Communist China.

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VI. Economy

A. General

By any standard, Somalia is a poor country. Its economy is based largely on primitive agriculture and livestock raising. In fact, bananas and livestock are the only important exports. While a few minerals have been discovered, they are relatively unimportant. Manufacturing hardly exists at all. Indians, Pakistanis and Europeans -- only one-tenth of one percent of total population -- control most of the country's economic and commercial life, particularly international trade.

Some 100 Italian-owned plantations dominate commercial agriculture. They produce bananas as the primary cash crop and sugar as the second most important crop. Bananas have traditionally been Somalia's main export crop, but it costs more to produce bananas in Somalia than in most other African countries. As a result of high prices, Somali bananas have not been sold worldwide but have depended on the protected Italian market. However, these Italian subsidies may be reduced shortly. The Somalis hope the modern port facilities being built at Chisimaio will reduce banana marketing and distribution costs thereby allowing Somali bananas to compete in other markets.

Local industry processes foodstuffs -- meat, sugar, etc. -- and is protected from foreign competition by import taxes and quotas. The total Somali labor force is quite small, and skilled labor is very scarce.

Most Somali are nomadic herdsman and are only slowly being drawn into the market economy. These nomads sell their surplus cattle and smaller animals which in turn provide about half of the country's total exports. Much of the rest of the population live on subsistence farms. Even though most Somalis are agriculturists of one kind or another, the country does not produce enough food to cover needs. As a result, foodstuffs have annually accounted for 25 percent of total imports. Cereals, fruits, vegetables, and sugar are the most important food products imported.

Somali Government investment in the post-war period has concentrated on improving transportation, health, and education facilities. The government has also built wells and irrigation units. Private investment -- mainly by resident Italians -- has been channelled largely into agricultural expansion and modernization. Private interests have also

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built food processing plants.

Somalia receives foreign aid from the Communist countries and from the West. Almost 70 percent of the \$196 million needed for the current Five-Year Plan (1963-67) has been pledged by foreign governments and international organizations. Approximately half of the pledged amount is to come from the USSR and Communist China.

B. Natural Resources

Most of the country is desert. No more than half the total area can be used as seasonal pasture and only an estimated 13 percent (20 million acres) may be cultivable. Less than 1 percent of the country's total surface is actually cultivated and cropped areas vary substantially from year to year depending on the amount and timing of rainfall and floods.

There are few known mineral resources in Somalia and none is commercially exploited. A substantial deposit of iron ore has been located near Bur Acaba, but its low quality makes commercial exploitation unlikely. Gypsum deposits, estimated at some 6 million tons of 80 percent gypsum content, are conveniently located near the port of Berbera. These deposits offer probably the best mineral prospects for commercial exploitation. Intensive oil exploration efforts have so far been futile. Forests are non-existent.

C. Agriculture and Fisheries

Somalis, most of them in the subsistence sector, practice dryland farming sometimes supplemented by rudimentary irrigation. Output of major crops (sorghum and maize) is about 100,000 tons annually. Minor crops include sesame, peanuts, beans, and cotton. Primitive methods and uncertain rainfall render Somali agriculture unable to meet internal food needs. The government plans to establish state farms and give technical aid to local farmers under the current Five-Year Plan.

Irrigated lands suitable for plantation agriculture occupy only one-third of one percent of cultivable land, but crops produced on this land provide an estimated 45 percent of the country's exports, employ the bulk of wage laborers, and directly or indirectly supply a large share of the country's revenue. Bananas are the single most important cash crop for export. Production has been increasing and totaled about 125,000 metric tons in 1964. Sugar is the only other crop of commercial importance and is the main crop in the Uebi Scebeli area. It is grown on both rain-fed and irrigated farms.

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However, Somali sugar can be sold only in the domestic market because of high production costs. The sugar sales tax is an important source of government revenue.

Fish -- especially tuna and sardines -- are plentiful along the Somali coasts but little is consumed locally. Some 15,000 Somalis depend on fishing for a livelihood; most of their catch is exported to neighboring countries. Several international fishing firms have expressed interest in starting operations along the Somali coasts.

D. Livestock Raising

About 70 percent of the population are herders, and exports of livestock and animal products are as important as bananas. There are about 7 or 8 million sheep and goats, 2 to 3 million camels, and 1.5 million head of cattle. Approximately 20 percent of the total stock of sheep and goats and 8 percent of the cattle are marketed annually. Commercial exploitation of livestock has been increasing since independence.

E. Industry and Electric Power

Industry is confined to handicrafts and processing agricultural products. Processed items include refined sugar, canned meat and tuna, and prepared hides and skins. Industry and handicrafts employ about 30,000 people, of which about 25,000 are engaged in handicrafts, producing leather and household goods and clothing. Italians own or manage most of the industrial enterprises, which are concentrated in southern Somalia. The lack of raw materials, management personnel, skilled labor, and a sizeable domestic market have all hampered industrial development. The government is currently constructing several small plants for the manufacture of garments, aluminum utensils, paint, and razor blades and plans to build more.

Electric power in Somalia is entirely dependent upon diesel units and is limited to some ten towns. Capacity is estimated at 7,000 kilowatts and production at 15 million kilowatt-hours in 1963. The Public Works Department produces and distributes power in northern Somalia and private concession companies in southern Somalia. Some of the larger banana firms produce their own electricity.

F. Employment and Labor

Nearly all the population, roughly estimated at 2 1/4 million, live within the subsistence area of the economy;

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most of them are nomadic herdsmen. Very few Somalis participate in the money economy. The small minority of non-Somalis dominate the money sector and are responsible for most domestic and foreign commerce.

Traditional Somali prejudice against manual labor hampers the growth of a labor force. Although unions abound, the labor movement is too weak and too disorganized to have much economic or political power. There are no outstanding labor leaders. The only large employers are the government and agricultural enterprises, and the government has consistently opposed wage increases. Soviet efforts to infiltrate the Somali labor movement have failed thus far.

G. Budget, Money, and Banking

The ordinary budget expenditures for Somalia were about \$27 million for calendar year 1965. The two major revenue sources are customs duties (81 percent) and income tax (7.3 percent). Somalia still relies on Italian subsidies to balance the ordinary budget. In the 1964 ordinary budget, expenditures for general administration, including internal security and defense, accounted for approximately 57 percent of current expenditures, social services 23 percent, and economic services 20 percent. Police and armed forces alone are allocated about 35 percent.

A developmental budget covers expenditures under the Five-Year Development Plan which began in 1963. The government intends to spend \$196 million during the plan period. In 1965 the Somali Government allocated \$5.5 million for development projects, largely financed by Soviet credits. These credits are mainly for importing Soviet commodities to be sold by the Somali Government and thus raise funds to meet the local costs of Soviet projects.

The Ministry of Industry and Commerce in 1965 received the largest appropriation (43 percent approximately). Most of these funds were spent for Soviet projects which include a milk processing plant at Mogadiscio, a fish cannery at Las Khereh, and a canned meat factory at Chisimaio. The Ministry of Agriculture and Husbandry was allocated the second largest appropriation (estimated 18 percent). Again, Soviet projects -- the state oil seed and cotton farms in the Giuba area and the state food grain farm at Tug Wajale -- accounted for most of the expenditure.

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In 1964 Somalia had \$40.5 million in outstanding external public debt for which agreements had been signed and understanding on use had been reached. Interest payments due before these debts reach maturity will total \$34.8 million. These payments will place a considerable burden on the Somali economy and may increase the difficulties in obtaining additional loans.

Somalia has a central bank (the Somali National Bank) and five commercial banks, four of which are branches of foreign banks. The Somali National Bank has gold, silver, and foreign exchange reserves equal to 100 percent of its outstanding currency. The currency used throughout Somalia is the Somali shilling worth about \$0.14.

H. Foreign Trade and Aid

Somalia is heavily dependent on foreign markets to sell its agricultural products and to supply needed consumer goods and machinery. Bananas, livestock, and livestock products represent 90 percent of total exports. Food, manufactured goods, machinery, and transportation equipment account for nearly 75 percent of all imports. In 1964, imports were valued at \$54.7 million and exports at \$36.1 million. Italy remains Somalia's most important customer, purchasing nearly 50 percent of total exports. Saudi Arabia and Aden are important markets for the export of live animals. Italy provides an estimated 30 percent of Somali imports, the USSR 14 percent, and the UK 8 percent.

Italy, the largest source of foreign loans and grants, has committed about \$6 million each year since 1959. Italy also subsidizes Somali bananas to the extent of about \$4 million a year. Between 1954 and July 1965, the US obligated a total of \$44 million. Of this, \$27 million has been actually spent. The partially completed Chisimaio Port Project being built and financed by the US has begun limited operations.

Since 1961, West German loans and grants have amounted to approximately \$11.2 million. The European Economic Community (EEC) committed \$6.8 million from 1959 to 1964. In the same period, UN aid totaled \$6.5 million. Communist aid -- Soviet, Chinese and Czech -- began in 1961. The USSR is the single most important donor (nearly \$55 million extended), but Communist China has offered nearly \$22 million and Czechoslovakia over \$5 million. Less than \$25 million in Bloc aid had been spent by mid-1965, most of it coming from Soviet credits. An estimated 54 percent of the foreign aid promised for Somalia's Five-Year Plan is to come from these Communist countries. West Germany, Italy, the US, and the EEC will provide the remainder.

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VII. Transportation

A. General

The core of surface transportation in Somalia is a sparse network of dirt roads and tracks. Only in the area between the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers and on the coastal plain in the southern part of the country are roads fairly numerous. The few paved roads in Somalia are in the south and, though in very poor repair, most of them are passable all year (see Map 53018). Gravel-surfaced roads, generally classified as "all weather" but occasionally impassable, are mostly in northern and southern Somalia. Natural-surface roads and tracks are common in most of the plains areas. Although such tracks frequently are impassable for motor vehicles, they offer many opportunities for choice of route. All of the vehicle ferries and large bridges, as well as most of the vehicles and traffic, are in the southern part of the country. Mogadiscio is the traffic hub. Few parts of the road net are suited to ambush or interdiction, and these are concentrated in the area west of the Scebeli River and in the Northern Mountains.

Domestic air service is provided by Somali Airlines, which is managed by Alitalia. In addition, three foreign airlines stop at Mogadiscio. Ocean shipping is carried on largely by foreign firms, but a significant tonnage is carried by Somali and foreign dhows that call at the many small ports between India and Zanzibar. At present only Berbera has alongside accommodations for deep-draft vessels, but the new port of Chisimaio, now under construction, will be the best in the country when it is completed.

B. Roads

1. Road Network

a. Paved Roads

Paved roads in Somalia total about 400 miles in length. Generally, they are 18 feet wide and accommodate two lanes of traffic. The principal ones are the Ferfer - Mogadiscio - Afgoi, the Dolo - Baidoa, and the Merca - Scialambod (Vittorio d' Africa) routes (see Figure 37) in the southern part of the country. Most of these roads are old and, aside from occasional hand repairs on the more heavily traveled sections, have not been maintained since the early part of World War II. Prolonged weathering and increased traffic have so deteriorated large segments of the tarmac surfaces that the going is sometimes

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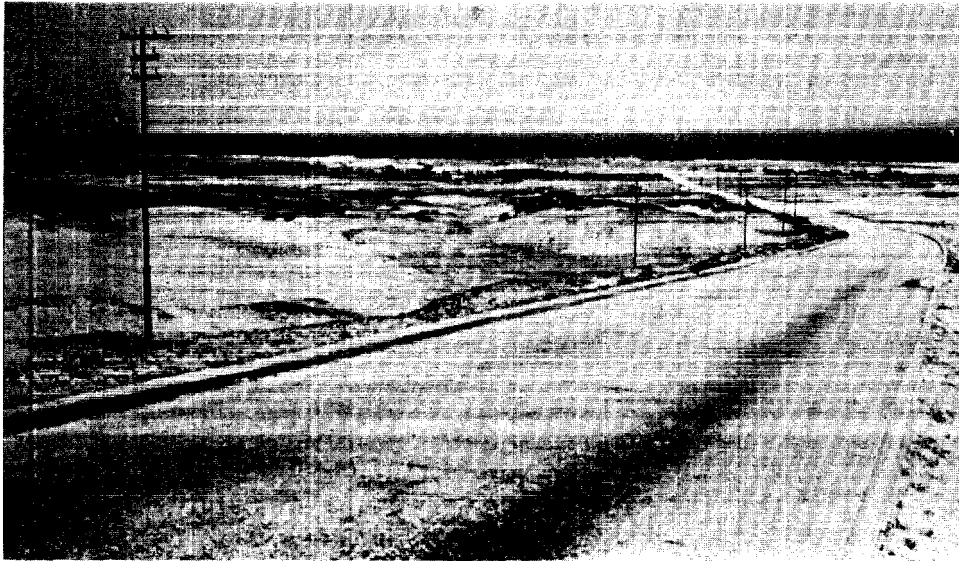


Figure 37. Paved road between Merca and Scialambod (Vittorio d'Africa). Approximately $01^{\circ}40'N-44^{\circ}52'E$.



Figure 38. Narrow road near summit of Sheikh Pass and village of Upper Sheikh ($09^{\circ}56'N-45^{\circ}13'E$). This is one of the few routes across the Northern Mountains.

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smoother and faster off the road. Nevertheless, even the roughest parts of these roads are passable in wet weather when natural-surface roads are closed to traffic.

As of August 1965 the gravel roads from Chisimaio to Gelib and from Afgoi to Scialambod were also being paved.

b. Gravel Roads

The 1,400 miles of gravel roads are divided about equally between northern and southern Somalia, but there are few in Migiurtinia and Mudugh Provinces in northeastern and central Somalia. Most gravel roads are designed for one lane of traffic. The more traveled ones, however, are two lanes wide except where the roughness of the terrain restricts them to a single lane, as across the Northern Mountains, where road widths are usually 12 feet or less (see Figure 38). Maintenance has been sporadic and generally consists of no more than filling potholes and occasional grading, all by hand.

Most of the gravel-surfaced roads are open to four-wheel-drive vehicles throughout the year. During the rainy periods, however, traffic is often held up for several hours or even days until fords and washed out roads become passable.

A few roads, chiefly those on steep grades in the Northern Mountains, are surfaced only with large rough stones and are open most of the time.

c. Natural-Surface Roads and Tracks

One-lane dirt or sand roads and tracks in Somalia total about 6,200 miles in length. They may have been graded at one time, but many are now no more than a pair of deep ruts with numerous rough sections (see Figure 39). In the dry seasons, dust is heavy and the cloud raised by a vehicle can be seen for miles. In the wet seasons, practically all natural-surface roads and tracks become impassable for at least a few hours after rainstorms (see Figure 40), but vehicles can generally avoid most of the washouts. The roads and tracks most affected by rain are in the south, where rainfall is heaviest and areas of clay are large, and in the north on the rolling surfaces of the Altopiano del Sol and the Haud. Roads in these sectors may take several days to dry out. In contrast, many of the roads and tracks on the sandy soils paralleling the Indian Ocean are passable except during the heaviest rains because they compact to a smooth, hard surface when wet and

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Figure 39. Sandy track near coast between Zeila and Berbera (approximately $10^{\circ}42'N$ - $43^{\circ}54'E$). Drifted sand often obscures the road.



Figure 40. Flooded road between Burao and Ainabo after a heavy downpour. Approximately $09^{\circ}08'N$ - $45^{\circ}57'E$.

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then they dry out rapidly.

d. Trails

Trails are numerous throughout the country, especially around waterholes, wells, and springs and along the Scebeli and Giuba Rivers. They are used mainly by the nomads and their herds but also by caravans of pack camels traveling between the coastal towns and the interior and by wild game.

Foot trails and the desert tracks that have been used by vehicles are often difficult to differentiate. Many travelers have taken unplanned detours when they inadvertently mistook trails for the roads or tracks they were following. Few of the trails are mapped, and many of the trail alignments shown on maps are inaccurate.

e. Traffic

Fewer than 10,000 vehicles were registered in the country in 1963, nearly all of them trucks and passenger cars. Most vehicles are in the southern part of the country, with the greatest number in and near Mogadiscio. Traffic is generally very light over most of the road system. It is lightest in the wet seasons and in the north and is heaviest in the dry seasons and in the south. Roads connecting the southern agricultural areas with the port towns are especially well traveled. The most heavily traveled roads in the north are those that connect Berbera with Hargeisa and with Burao.

2. Road Structures

Few bridges are needed in Somalia because the road network is sparse and there are only two perennial rivers. Only 20 bridges in the entire country exceed 150 feet in length (1963), and all are in southern Somalia. Eleven are concentrated on the road between Ferfer and Mogadiscio, two of them across the Scebeli River. Five other bridges also cross the Scebeli River. Only one bridge crosses the Giuba River, near Giamama (see Figure 41).

Natural fords cross most of the tugs but are likely to be impassable when the tugs are in flood. Some fords, especially in the north, have been improved with concrete bottoms.

In 1963, five ferries were in operation in Somalia -- four across the Giuba River and one across the Dawa Parma River

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Figure 41. Steel bridge across Giuba River at Giamama on main road between Mogadiscio and Chisimaio. This is the only bridge spanning the Giuba River.

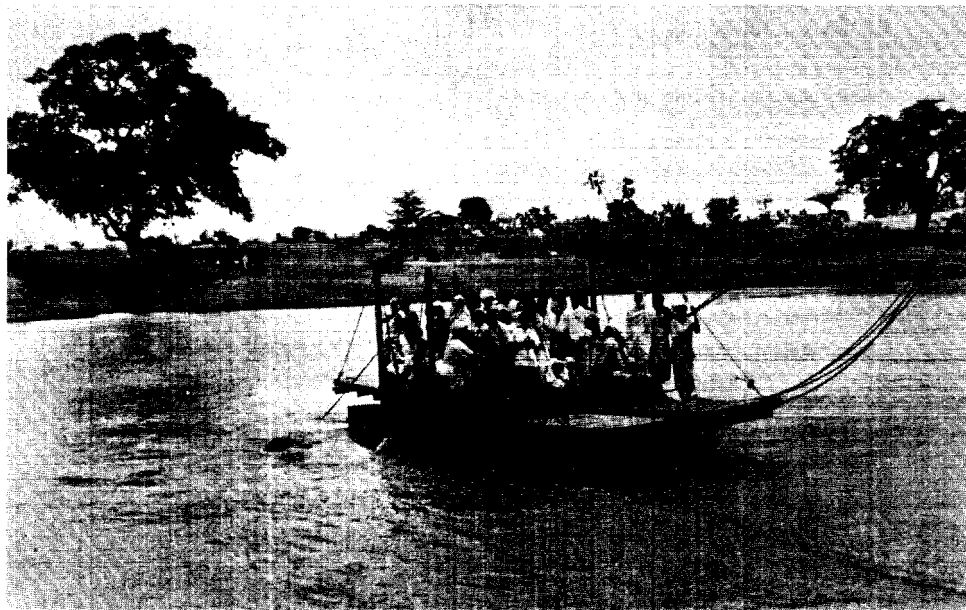


Figure 42. Small ferry crossing Giuba River at Lugh Ganana.

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on the Ethiopian boundary in southwestern Somalia. All of the ferries have steel pontoons and probably are hand powered. Those at Gumbo and Bardera have counterpoise steel ramps. Except at Gumbo, where the ferry crosses 720 feet of water, the width of the rivers at the ferry crossings is unknown. The location and capacity of the ferries are given below.

<u>Location</u>	<u>Capacity</u>
<u>Over Giuba River</u>	
At Dolo on Dolo - Lugh Ganana road	Two Land-Rovers or one 3-ton truck
At Lugh Ganana on Dolo-Lugh Ganana road (see Figure 42)	Two Land-Rovers or one 3-ton truck
At Bardera on Bardera - Wajir (Kenya) road	Two 3-ton trucks
At Gumbo on Gelib - Giamama - Chisimaio road	Six 3-ton trucks

Over Dawa Parma River

At Dolo on Dolo - Filtu (Ethiopia) road	Two Land-Rovers or one 3-ton truck
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The only road tunnel in Somalia is through the Tabah Pass on the little-traveled road between Mait and Erigavo in northern Somalia. This tunnel is 225 feet long, 8 feet wide, and 20 feet high.

3. Operational Factors

The highway system is not generally vulnerable to interdiction because most of the major bridges can be circumvented if they are put out of commission and roads can be cut effectively in only a few places. Even where traffic can be delayed, the economic impact from the loss of truck service for short periods would not be great. Many settlements, especially in the south, are normally isolated for as much as 2 months each year when heavy rains make the roads impassable.

During the dry seasons all bridges can be bypassed except the one across the Giuba River at Giamama (see Figure 41)

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and the seven across the Scebeli River, which are prime targets. Loss of the one bridge and five ferries on the Giuba and Daua Parma Rivers would sever surface transportation between the area west of the Giuba River and the rest of the country. Local people, however, would probably be able to restore limited ferry service for small vehicles in a matter of hours or days.

In the northern three-fourths of the country the sparseness of the vegetation and the preponderance of flat or nearly flat land greatly limit the selection of ambush points. On the plains west and southwest of Mogadiscio, however, vegetation is more dense and ambush sites are much more numerous. In these areas many roads are flanked by dense thickets of thorny brush, which offer excellent concealment and confine traffic to the roadway. Roads across the Northern Mountains also offer good opportunity for interdiction, as alternate routes are few and steep grades, sharp curves, and narrow rocky roadways slow traffic to a crawl. The road over Sheikh Pass between Berbera and Burao is especially narrow and circuitous; it is customarily open to one-way traffic only -- southbound in the morning and northbound in the afternoon (January 1965). Although the vegetation is sparse in the Northern Mountains, the rough topography provides numerous vantage points for surveillance and ambush.

Many sections of the borders of Somalia can be crossed by light vehicles, particularly during the dry seasons. Dry-weather roads, trails, and animal tracks that cross or lie near the borders are too numerous to be monitored effectively. The portion of the Somalia - Ethiopia boundary between its easternmost point and Tug Wajale and the entire Somalia - Kenya boundary are paralleled by dry-weather tracks.

While a visible cloud of dust is likely to be raised by a single vehicle, even occasionally in the rainy seasons, the likelihood of being observed by nomads changes with the season and the nearness to water. During the two dry seasons many nomads in the north are drawn southward, where more water is available, and those who remain in the north are concentrated near the few wells that still have water. In the short rainy seasons nomads are widely distributed among the more remote pastures and water sources.

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C. Air Transport

Commercial air service is provided by one Somali airline under foreign management and by three foreign airlines. Somali Airlines serves Hargeisa, Berbera, Burao, Erigavo, Bender Cassim (Bosaso), Candala, Alula, Gardo, Galcaio, Mogadiscio, and Chisimaio and also flies the Hargeisa - Aden route. This airline has three DC-3s, a gift from the US Government. Its pilots and other technical personnel are Italians employed by Alitalia, which manages the company. In 1964 the company sent some 54 Somali youths to Germany for pilot and other technical training by Lufthansa and the German Government. It hopes to have only Somali personnel by 1970.

Aden Airways flies Vickers Viscounts between Mogadiscio, Aden, and Nairobi. The Mogadiscio - Aden run also is served by Alitalia with DC-8s and by United Arab Airlines with Comet IV-Cs.

Somalia has 30 active airfields, of which the two most important are Mogadiscio and Hargeisa South. None of the airports are well equipped by modern standards. Most have no facilities whatsoever, and others have only simple radio aids, fuel in drums, and small buildings or huts.

The runway at Mogadiscio was recently resurfaced and extended to a length of 8,200 feet and can now accommodate DC-8 aircraft. The airport has a few navigation aids and temporary lighting for night landing. There are seven hangars and limited passenger facilities. Facilities are available for storing 28,000 gallons of aviation gasoline and 11,000 gallons of jet fuel.

Hargeisa South has a 7,500-foot surfaced runway and has handled DC-6 aircraft. Facilities include limited navigational aids, temporary night lighting, one hangar, and a small terminal building with an air-traffic control room on the upper floor (see Figure 43). Hargeisa South has underground facilities for storing 14,000 gallons of aviation gasoline.

The other 28 active airfields have natural-surface runways, mostly 1,800 to 3,600 feet in length, that have accommodated DC-3 aircraft. Heavy rains during April and May and again in October and November make many of them unusable. Those with sand and gravel surfaces generally dry rapidly after storms, but clay airstrips may remain muddy and unusable for several days. Although most airstrips can be used the rest of the year -- December through

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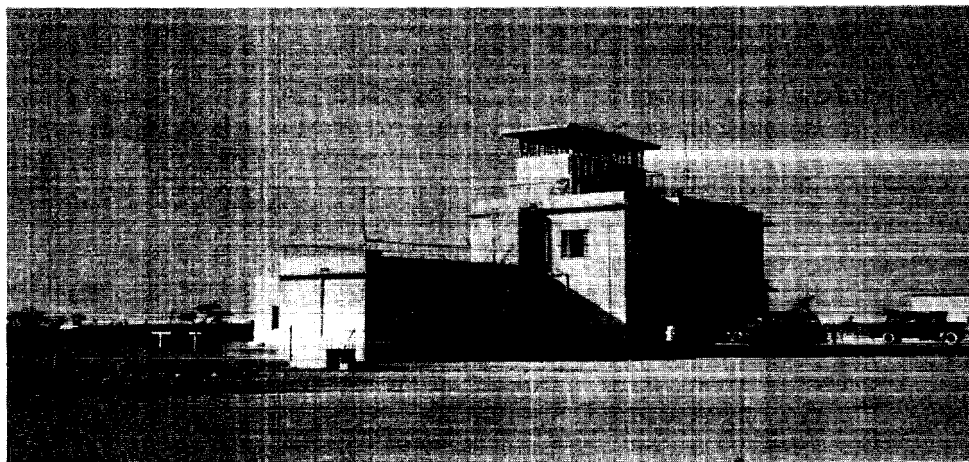


Figure 43. Air terminal and control tower at Hargeisa South. 1959.



Figure 44. Large ocean-going dhow, typical of those that ply Somali coast.

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March and June through September -- flying may be restricted for brief periods because of haze and blowing dust.

About 80 former landing grounds are scattered throughout the country. Most are less than 3,000 feet long, and all have natural surfaces. Some may be used by light aircraft in emergencies, but the surface conditions of most are unknown.

D. Water Transport

1. Ocean Shipping

The foreign trade of the Somali Republic is carried on largely by foreign shipping firms. Most of the foreign ships calling at Somali ports fly the Italian flag, but British, Dutch, and Soviet ships also call frequently. Only one coastal motor ship, the SS Dalmar, flies the Somali flag (1965). It plies the coastal waters of the Indian Ocean, the Red Sea, and the Persian Gulf.

Dhows (Arab-type sailing vessels) sail between the numerous settlements on Somalia's long coastline and ports along the Persian Gulf, the Gulf of Aden, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean as far south as Zanzibar and as far east as India (see Figure 44). They range between 30 and 100 tons in size, have very shallow drafts, and can be beached almost anywhere regardless of the port facilities available. Sailings are closely associated with the winds -- northward during the Southwest Monsoon (June through September) and southward during the Northeast Monsoon (December through March). Small dhows sail the open sea near the beginning and end of the monsoons. At the heights of these seasons the seas are too rough for any but the most seaworthy vessels, and the smaller ships hug the coast or use some of the narrow channels between the beach and offshore reefs and shoals south of Mogadiscio.

Many of the dhows that serve Somalia are registered in other countries, particularly in Aden and Kenya. In 1959 only 118 were registered in Italian Somaliland. Most dhow owners and masters are local Arabs. Crews in southern Somalia are made up of local Bajuns, whereas dhows on the Gulf of Aden are manned by Arabs. The dhow master and mate, who also double as merchants, have little knowledge of scientific navigation but have an intimate knowledge of the local coastal areas, ports, and trading practices.

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2. Ports

Although Somalia has 1,800 miles of coastline, the country has but two protected harbors, Berbera in the north and Chisimaio in the south. Only Berbera has alongside accommodations, and these are only for coasters. Mogadiscio, the country's largest port, has no natural protection, and all deep-draft vessels must anchor in the open roadstead.

a. Mogadiscio

Mogadiscio, the commercial center of southern Somalia, is the busiest port. Of the 300 vessels that call at Mogadiscio in an average year almost half fly the Italian flag and about a third are dhows. Most of the Italian-registered ships are banana carriers which also stop at the banana ports of Merca and Chisimaio.

The harbor is approximately southeast of the center of town (see Figure 45). It is protected on the east and southeast by a breakwater but is exposed to the southwest. At low water the shoal at the entrance is only 6 feet below the surface and access to the harbor is limited to lighters and small craft, chiefly dhows, with maximum draft of 7 feet and length of 100 feet. All larger craft must anchor in the open roadstead, in depths of 30 to 60 feet, approximately half a mile to the south, where cargo and passengers are transferred between them and lighters. Lightering is often suspended during the height of the monsoons, particularly during the Southwest Monsoon, when winds may reach gale force and swells may crest up to 15 feet.

In 1964, port equipment included 4 lighter piers and a breakwater quay with alongside depths of 3 to 6 feet, 4 tugs, 2 motor launches, 13 lighters, and a dredger. The storage area includes six covered sheds and an unpaved stacking ground, which becomes muddy in the rainy seasons.

A petroleum tank farm storing gasoline, kerosene, diesel oil, and fuel oil is located at Ras Sif, 1-1/4 miles southwest of the breakwater. The total storage capacity of this facility was about 225,000 gallons in 1964. Bulk products are discharged from tankers (maximum draft 25 feet) through a double floating pipeline at a point 500 feet offshore. Vessels generally are off-loaded only during calm periods, which are most frequent in April and October. In the spring of 1964 the Shell Oil Company was constructing three tanks for the storage of aviation fuel (capacity 3,000 tons).

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Figure 45. Part of port facilities at Mogadiscio.

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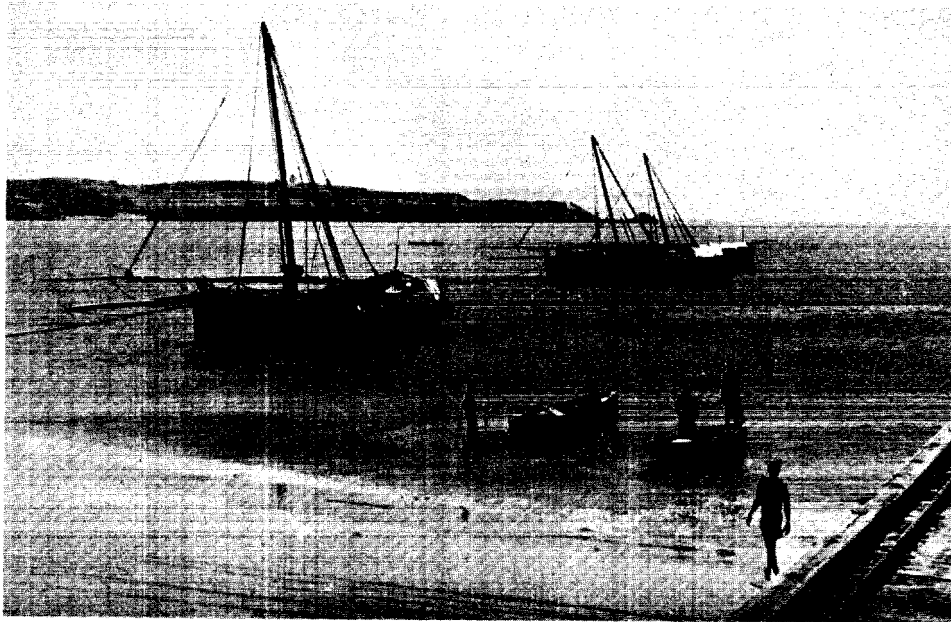


Figure 46. Dhows at anchor in Chisimaio harbor. 1962.

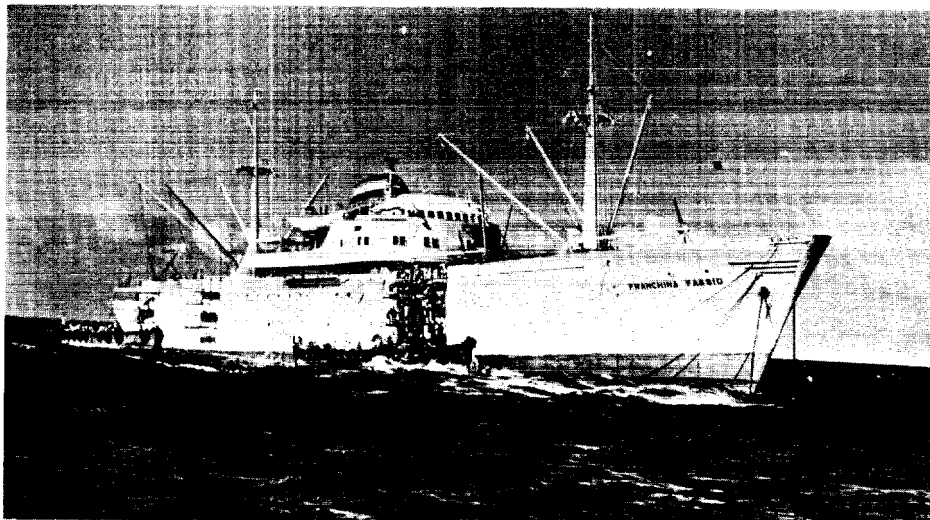


Figure 47. Italian ship anchored in open roadstead at Merca. Bananas are being transferred from shallow-draft lighters.

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b. Berbera

Berbera is primarily a livestock-exporting port. Each year it ships about 40,000 head of sheep, goats, camels, and cattle to ports on the Red Sea, the South Arabian coast, and the Persian Gulf. Jidda receives nearly half of all livestock shipped from Berbera.

Berbera harbor is an elongated inlet -- 1-1/2 miles long by 1/4 mile wide -- that is protected on the north by a sandy spit. Because of its southwest exposure, port activities are reduced to a minimum during the Southwest Monsoon. Harbor anchorage is limited to three vessels with maximum lengths of 420 feet and drafts of 30 feet, except during the Southwest Monsoon when most ships anchor outside the harbor in the open roadstead. Vessels of 16-foot draft and 150-foot length can berth alongside the 400-foot jetty. Besides this jetty, there are three small quays which can accommodate lighters and dhows at high tide.

A petroleum tank farm with a capacity of 1.5 million gallons is located between the beach and the airfield on the southwestern edge of town. It is fed from tankers through an 8-inch pipe, 3,200 feet long, with a flexible connection attached to buoys. Petroleum stock is generally replenished in April and in August.

c. Chisimaio

The port of Chisimaio serves mainly as an outlet for bananas and other agricultural products raised nearby. Only vessels of very shallow draft can be accommodated here (see Figure 46); deep-water ships are served by lighters from the open roadstead. As in other ports of Somalia, lighters become less active at the height of the Southwest Monsoon. The port is being expanded to provide four protected berths for 10,000-ton vessels with drafts of 31 feet. A power-plant, water system, and handling equipment are to be completed by 1967.

d. Other Ports

The only other important ports are Brava and Merca. Their facilities include little more than piers for the lighters that serve deep draft vessels in the open roadsteads (see Figure 47). The other settlements along the Somali coasts have practically no port facilities and are served mainly by dhows that are beached. The few larger vessels that service them must anchor in unprotected waters.

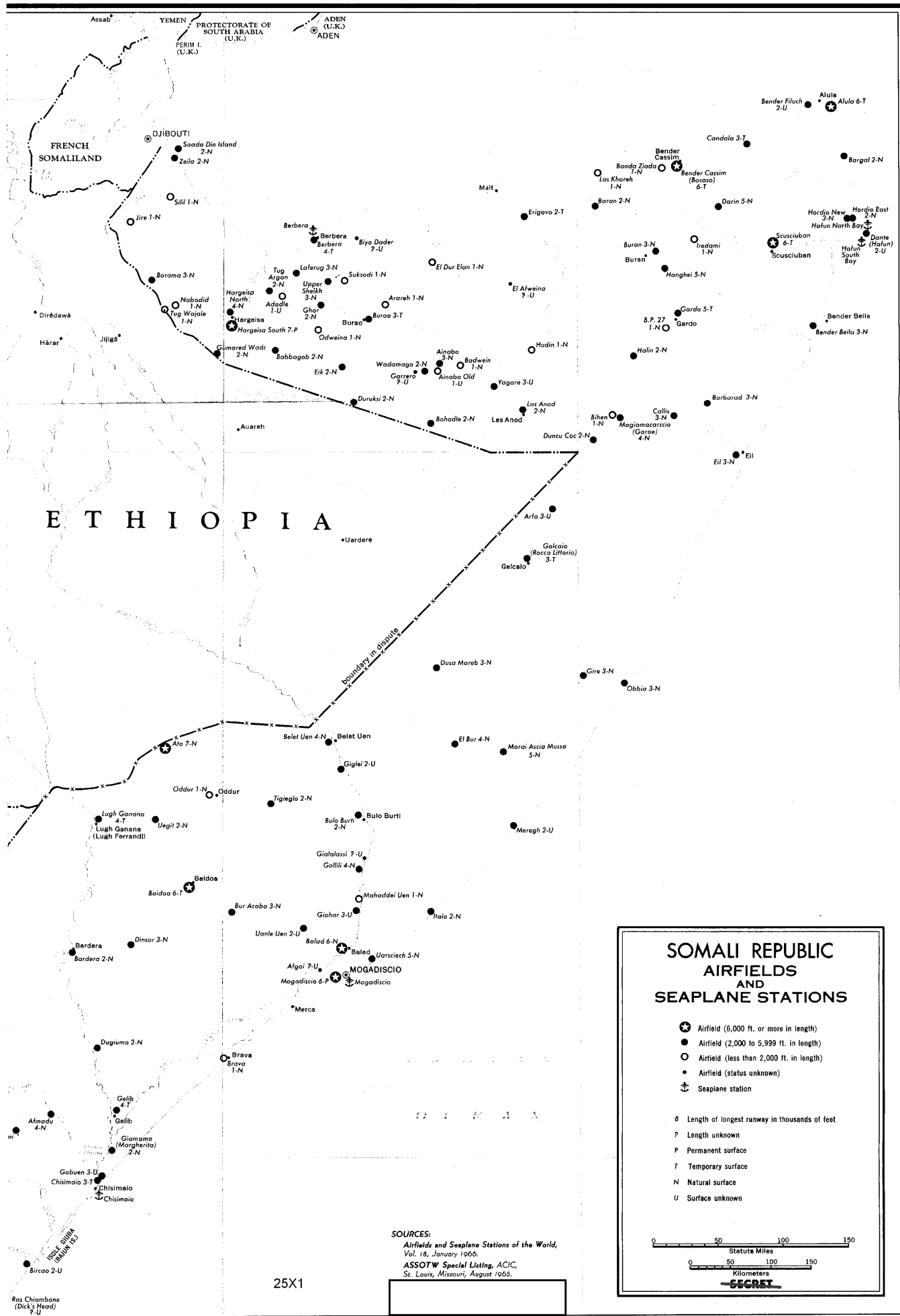
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3. Inland Waterways

The only navigable waterway in Somalia is the portion of the Giuba River between Gumbo at the mouth and Serenli, 345 miles upstream. Even in this section of the river, however, navigation is limited to the high-water period, April through October. In dry years, vessels cannot go beyond Giamama, 70 miles upstream. A few flat-bottomed barges, with a maximum draft of 3 feet, slowly ply the difficult, meandering course of the river which is plagued with a shifting channel and numerous sandbars. The journey between Gumbo and Serenli generally takes 20 days upstream and as many as 7 days downstream.

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<i>Airfield Name</i>	<i>Location</i>	<i>Airfield Name</i>	<i>Location</i>
Adadle	0947N 4440E	Garrero	0853N 4610E
Afgoi	0208N 4506E	Gelib	0030N 4247E
Afmadu	0030N 4205E	Ghor	0941N 4507E
Ainabo	0859N 4627E	Gialalassi	0324N 4536E
Ainabo (old)	0857N 4626E	Giamama	0004N 4245E
Alula	1158N 5045E	Giglei	0423N 4520E
Arareh	0940N 4549E	Giohar	0247N 4530E
Arfa	0722N 4742E	Gire	0522N 4802E
Ato	0438N 4321E	Gobuen	0014S 4236E
Babbagob	0909N 4434E	Gobwen (See Gobuen)	
Badwein	0900N 4640E	Gollili	0316N 4531E
Baidoa	0307N 4338E	Gumared Wadr	0907N 4354E
Balad	0222N 4524E	Hafun (See Dante)	
Banda Ziada	1114N 4859E	Hafun North Bay SS	1031N 5115E
Baran	1047N 4812E	Hafun South Bay SS	1025N 5114E
Barbarad	0832N 4928E	Halin	0906N 4839E
Bardera	0220N 4218E	Hanghei	1004N 4900E
Bargal	1117N 5105E	Hargeisa North	0933N 4403E
Belese Cogani	0017N 4142E	Hargeisa South	0929N 4406E
Belet Uen	0442N 4513E	Hodur (See Oddur)	
Bender Beila	0924N 5039E	Hordio East	1034N 5106E
Bender Cassim	1117N 4910E	Hordio New	1034N 5105E
Bender Fluch	1156N 5038E	Hudin	0910N 4729E
Berbera	1026N 4501E	Iredami	1025N 4920E
Berbera SS	1027N 4501E	Iscia Baidoa (See Baidoa)	
Bihen	0825N 4823E	Itala	0246N 4620E
Bircao	0113S 4151E	Jire	1038N 4256E
Biyo Dader	(approx) 1026N 4529E	Jirreh (See Jire)	
Bohodle	0819N 4620E	Kismayu (See Chisimaio)	
Borama	0957N 4311E	Laferug	1001N 4449E
Bosaso (see Bender Cassim)		Las Anod	0830N 4721E
B. P. 27	0926N 4900E	Las Khoreh	1110N 4814E
Brava	0106N 4402E	Lugh Ferrandi (See Lugh Ganana)	
Bulo Burti	0351N 4530E	Lugh Ganana	0349N 4233E
Bur Acaba	0247N 4405E	Magiamacarscio	0823N 4829E
Buran	1016N 4854E	Mahaddei Uen	0257N 4532E
Burao	0931N 4535E	Marai Ascia Mussa	0436N 4709E
Callis	0823N 4905E	Margherita (See Giamama)	
Candala	1130N 4955E	Meregh	0347N 4719E
Chisimaio	0016S 4234E	Mogadiscio	0201N 4519E
Chisimaio SS	0022S 4233E	Mogadiscio SS	0202N 4521E
Colbio	0108S 4115E	Mogadishu (See Mogadiscio)	
Dante	1026N 5116E	Nabadid	0941N 4329E
Dante North Bay (See Hafun North Bay)		Obbia	0521N 4832E
Dante South Bay (See Hafun South Bay)		Oddur	0407N 4352E
Darin	1039N 4944E	Odweina	0924N 4503E
Dick's Head (See Ras Chiambone)		Ras Chiambone	0139S 4135E
Dif	0100N 4100E	Rocca Littorio (See Galcaio)	
Dinsor	0225N 4259E	Saada Din Island	1127N 4328E
Dugiuma	0115N 4235E	Scuscluban	1020N 5012E
Duncu Coc	0808N 4810E	Sheikh (See Upper Sheikh)	
Duruksi	0833N 4528E	Sillil	1056N 4323E
Dusa Mareb	0532N 4623E	Suksodi	0957N 4522E
Eik	0858N 4520E	Tigieglo	0402N 4430E
Eil	0800N 4948E	Tug Argan	0950N 4430E
El Afweina	0955N 4715E	Tug Wajale	0936N 4318E
El Bur	0440N 4636E	Uanle Uen	0237N 4454E
El Dur Elan	1010N 4622E	Uarsclech	0216N 4545E
El Uach	0250N 4103E	Uegit	0350N 4315E
El Wak (See El Uach)		Upper Sheikh	0956N 4512E
Erigavo	1039N 4723E	Wadamago	0855N 4616E
Galcaio	0647N 4726E	Yagare	0844N 4702E
Gardo	0933N 4907E	Zella	1121N 4329E
Garoe (See Magiamacarscio)			

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El Uach 3-N

Dif 2-U

Beles Cog 3-U

Colbio 2-U

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4.

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7. Somali Republic, Planning and Coordinating Committee for Economic and Social Development. First Five-Year Plan (1963-1967), Jul 1963. U.

8. State, Mogadiscio. Airgram A-279, 7 Nov 1964. U.

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VIII. Telecommunications

A. General

The telecommunications system of the Somali Republic is poorly developed and is barely adequate to meet the needs of the country. Such facilities as exist are owned and administered by the government. Civil telephone and telegraph service is controlled by the Ministry of Public Works and Communications, and the broadcasting system is directed by the Council of Ministers.

B. Telephone and Telegraph Facilities and Services

1. Domestic

In 1965 there were only 3,000 telephones in use, 2,000 of which were in Mogadiscio. All were connected to manual exchanges. The quality of telephone service in Mogadiscio was upgraded late in 1965 with the opening of a 2,000-line automatic exchange. In its initial operating stage in 1966 this new exchange will provide 1,200 additional subscriber connections. Interurban telephone service is available only in three areas of the Somali Republic on open wireline systems connecting Hargeisa-Berbera-Burao; Chisimaio-Margherita-Gelib; and Mogadiscio with several surrounding towns. (see Map 53019). Although several towns outside of these areas have local telephone service, no interurban connections are available.

Telegraph service is the principal means of interurban communications throughout the Somali Republic. Service is provided by a national telegraph network of more than 30 high-frequency (HF) radiotelegraph stations that serve most major population centers.

2. International

Mogadiscio is the center for most international communications. From Mogadiscio HF radiotelephone service is available to Italy and Kenya and HF radiotelegraph service is available to Italy and Tanzania. In addition, international radio facilities at Hargeisa and Berbera provide radiotelegraph service to Aden.

C. Broadcasting

Radiobroadcasting service is provided to most of the country by government operated short-wave radiobroadcasting stations at Mogadiscio and Hargeisa. The National Broadcasting Service at Mogadiscio operates a 50-kilowatt (kw)

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and two 5kw transmitters; Radio Somali at Hargeisa operates a 10kw and a 5kw transmitter. The 50kw transmitter, supplied by the USSR in 1965, is used for both domestic and international broadcasting. The radiobroadcasting reception base in the Somali Republic was limited to about 35,000 radio receivers in 1965. There is no television service in the country.

D. Specialized Communications Networks

1. Army

The army uses HF radio equipment in its main military communications network that connects the main control station at Mogadiscio with outstations located in the capital cities of the other seven regions.

2. Police

The police operate an extensive HF radio communications network of 81 stations located throughout the country. The main control station is located at Mogadiscio, with regional control stations at Belet Uen, Bender Cassim, Chisimaio, Hargeisa, Baidoa, Lugh Ganana, Oddur, and Galcaio.

3. Aeronautical

Aeronautical Aeradeo Limited, a privately owned company, operates HF and very-high-frequency radio facilities at the Mogadiscio and Hargeisa airports. Figure 48 shows the airport radio station at Mogadiscio.

4. Maritime

A medium-frequency and HF radio station for shore-to-ship communications is operated by the government at Mogadiscio.

5. Other

Several foreign oil companies with headquarters in Mogadiscio have HF radio facilities that provide voice communications with field personnel.

E. Prime Telecommunications Targets

The telecommunications system of the Somali Republic is poorly developed. In most areas of the country HF radio-telegraph facilities are the only available communications medium

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Figure 48. Airport Radio Station, Mogadiscio.

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and their loss would serve to isolate such areas from the rest of the country. Figure 49 shows the main telegraph office at Mogadiscio.

Interurban telephone service can be interdicted easily by the destruction of a few wirelines. Wirelines, such as those shown in Figure 50, generally follow the main highways.

The HF radio transmitters and antenna farm for international telephone and telegraph service from Mogadiscio are located 6 miles southwest of the city. If this facility were made inoperative, international communications from the Somali Republic would be reduced substantially.

Radiobroadcasting service could be disrupted by the destruction of the transmitters or studio facilities at Mogadiscio and Hargeisa. The two 5kw transmitters for the Mogadiscio station are located 6 miles southwest of the city. The 50kw transmitter is located 5 miles northwest of Mogadiscio near the main highway to Afgoi. Figure 51 shows the studio facilities of Radio Somali in Hargeisa.

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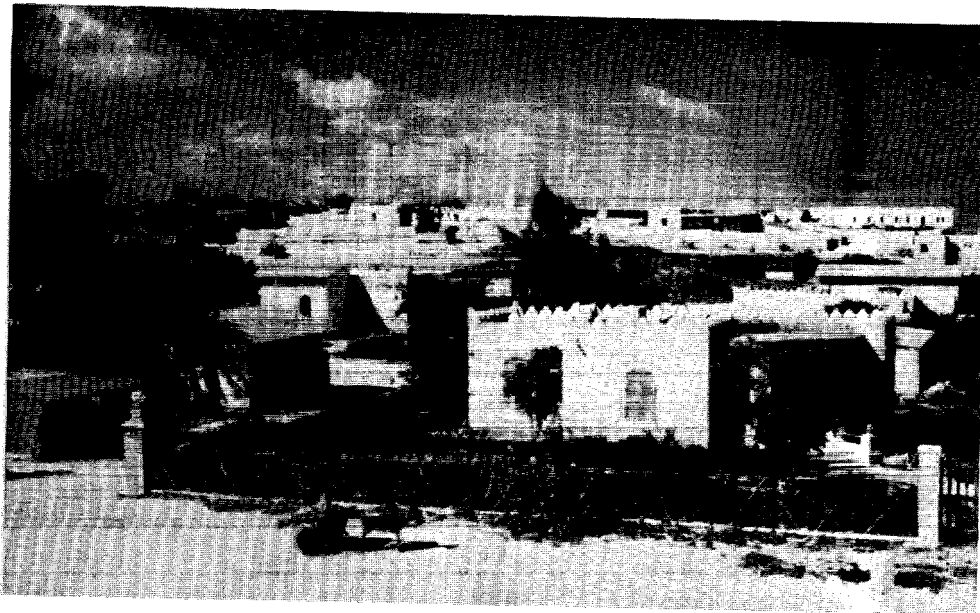


Figure 49. Central Telegraph Office, Mogadiscio.

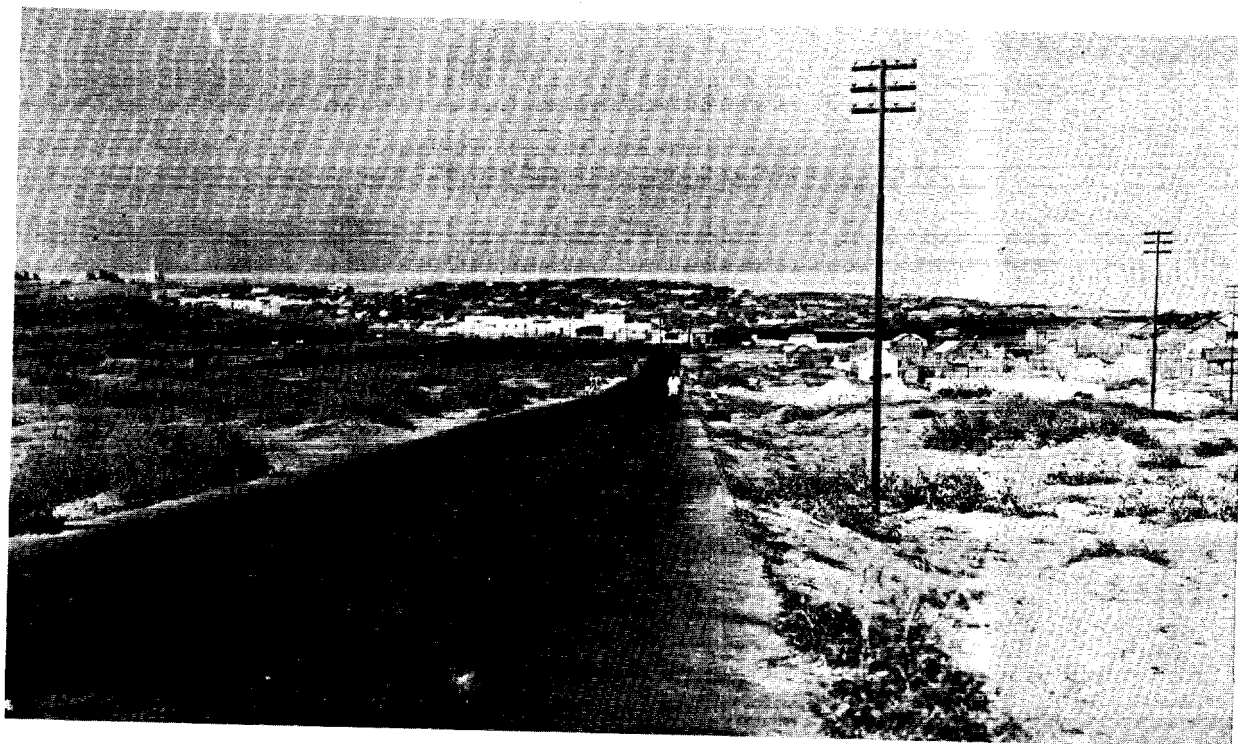


Figure 50. Open Wirelines near Mogadiscio.

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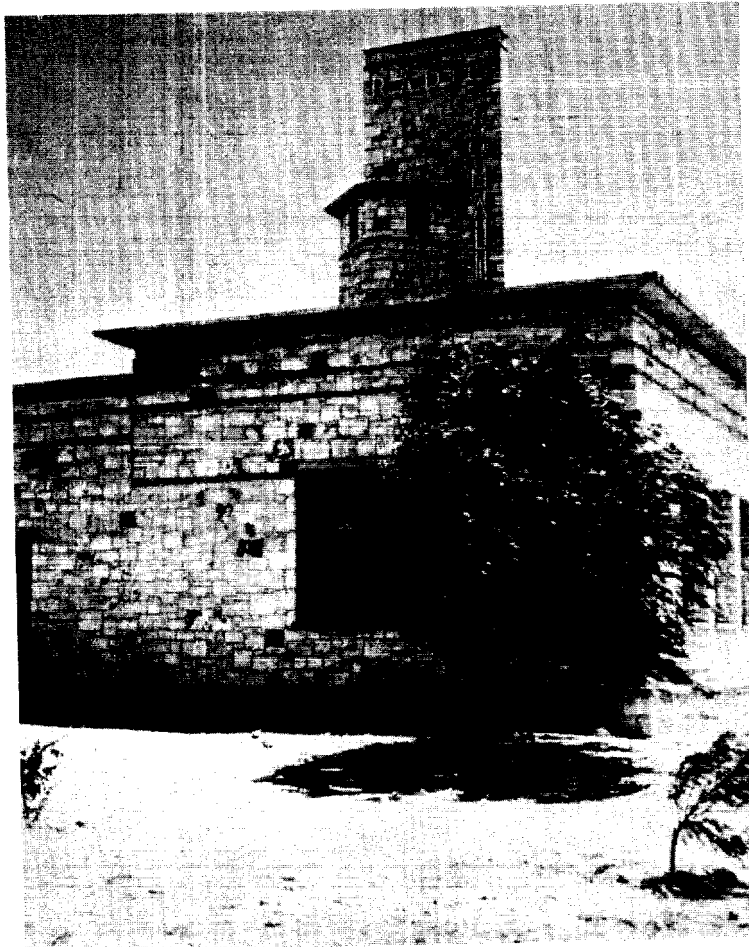
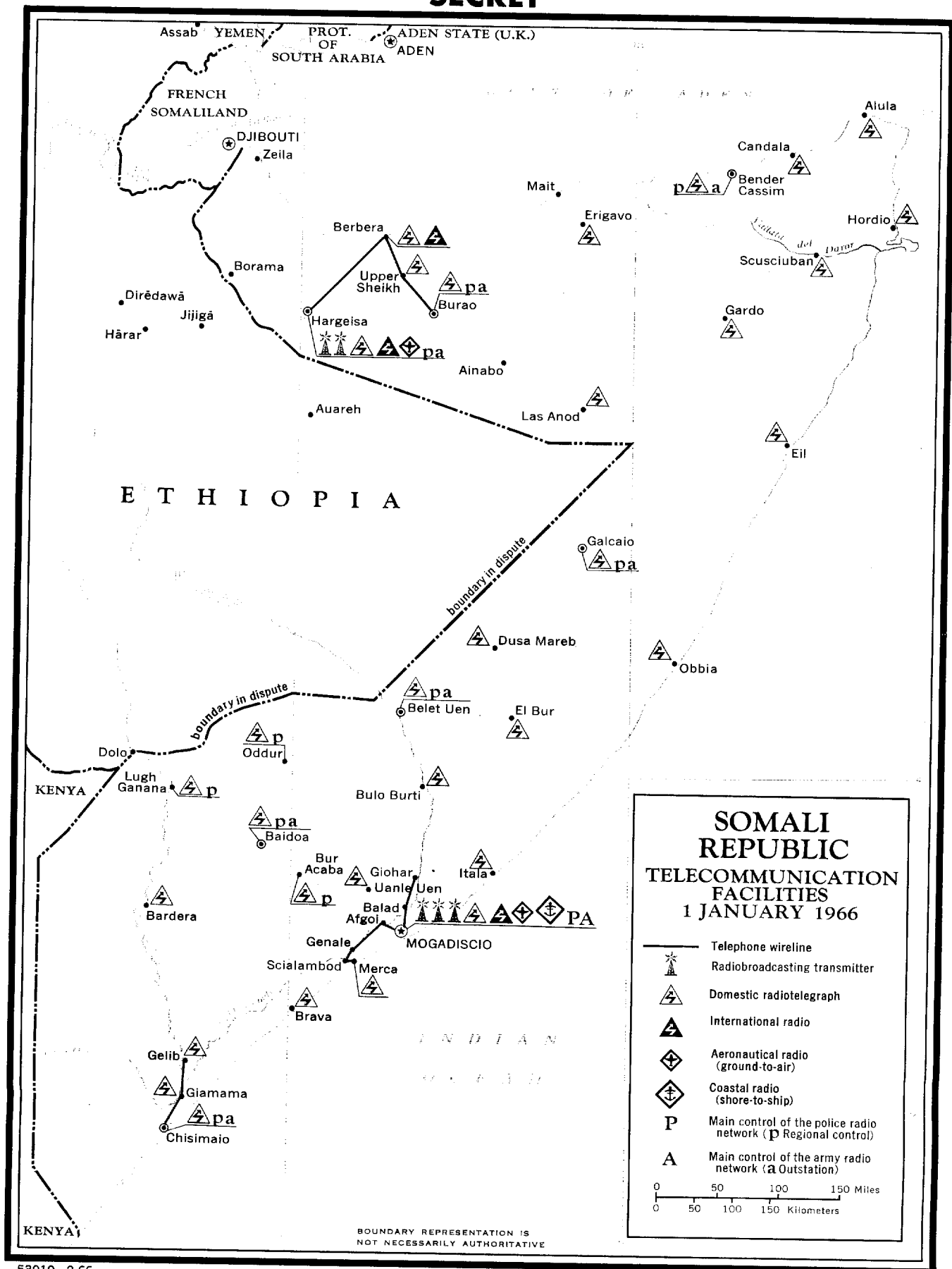


Figure 51. Studio Facilities of Radio Somali, Hargeisa.

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AND DECLASSIFICATION

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1.
2.
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OUO.
4. O. Lund Johansen Ltd. World Radio TV Handbook, Hellerup,
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IX. Military and Internal Security Forces

The material contained in this chapter is essentially a condensation of material to be found in the NIS General Survey, Somali Republic, July 1966.

A. General

Somalia's military and internal security forces consist of an 8,500-man army, a 6,000-man national police force, the beginnings of an army air force (300), and a navy (125). The Somali National Army (SNA), though becoming more proficient, is not yet able to prevent a determined invasion by a well-equipped, well-trained force or to maintain an effective force outside the Republic. Combined with the police they probably can maintain internal security. Training of the army, air force, and navy (by the Soviets) and the police (by Italy, West Germany, and the US) is still underway. The low level of education among the recruits and the shortage of trained leaders has slowed the building of the capabilities of the security forces.

At independence in 1960, the military forces, totalling under 4,000, were a combination of Italian-trained police, British-trained scouts, and new recruits. Since then, expansion and reorganization, largely the result of a Soviet military assistance agreement, have taken place in accord with the Somali Government's objective of molding a national army and police force. During the first years of independence, the United Kingdom and Italy were the chief sources of military assistance. In November 1963, Somalia, disillusioned with the speed and quantity of Western offers, accepted a \$35 million military assistance agreement with the Soviet Union. Since 1963, most SNA equipment and training has been provided by the USSR, about 600-700 armed forces personnel have begun or completed training in the USSR, and about 200-250 Soviet military advisors have been stationed in Somalia. The Soviet Union's military assistance agreement provides for extensive reorganization and training and for the addition of large quantities of relatively modern equipment. The Soviet equipment includes infantry weapons, tanks and armored personnel carriers, artillery, anti-aircraft weapons, motor vehicles, patrol vessels, and aircraft. By 1968 the SNA is to be slightly larger and significantly modernized, with mobile ground forces supported by jet fighter aircraft. At the same time, Somali officials, both civilian and military, have said they do not want to be entirely dependent on the USSR.

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The armed forces are believed to be largely apolitical and loyal to the government, although there is some dissatisfaction among junior officers with conditions of service and the leadership of older police-trained ranking officers.

B. Army

The SNA ground forces have a current strength of about 8,500 organized into eight infantry battalions and several support units. Each battalion consists of three infantry companies, a headquarters and service company, and support elements including mortar, antitank gun, machinegun, and antiaircraft gun platoons.

The present battalions may be converted into six mechanized battle groups by 1970. Each of the new battle groups is to consist of a mechanized infantry battalion, an artillery battalion, a tank company, a service company, and a headquarters company. The new infantry battalion will include three infantry companies and a weapons company composed of two mortar platoons and two antitank platoons. The artillery battalion will include an antiaircraft battery and one or two field artillery batteries. The service company will include a transportation platoon and an engineer platoon.

The present eight battalions are widely deployed, and the locations of the six new battle groups are expected to be similarly scattered. Three battalions are currently stationed in the northwest, at Hargeisa, Adadle, and Burao. Three are located in the southwest, at Mogadiscio, Baidoa, and Chisimaio. Two are stationed in the central portion of the country, at Belet Uen and Galcaio.

Prior to the 1963 Soviet assistance agreement, Somalis received military training in the United Kingdom, Italy, Iraq, and the United Arab Republic. Beginning in 1964, most overseas training has taken place in the USSR, and training in Somalia has been almost entirely in the hands of Soviet advisers.

The army maintains an officer candidate school in Mogadiscio. Noncommissioned officers also train in Mogadiscio. Recruit training centers are located at Mogadiscio and Hargeisa. Commando-type training is conducted at Hargeisa and at Balad, near Mogadiscio. An artillery school is at Mogadiscio, and a driver school is at nearby Uarsceich.

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C. Police

The Somali National Police (SNP), organized into eight territorial units of varying sizes, is responsible for law enforcement, border control, and internal security. The force is generally well trained and disciplined. It is capable of maintaining internal security, although it probably could not contain continuing, widespread violence and cannot prevent endemic tribal conflicts.

The strength of the SNP is estimated at 6,000 including the 1,500-man Darawishta. The Darawishta is a mobile force in which most of the SNP's paramilitary capability is concentrated. It is organized into nine companies stationed throughout the country. It is trained in basic infantry tactics and armed with automatic weapons and light mortars. The SNP has four Cessna 185 light aircraft.

Police training is conducted largely in Somalia. Selected officers and technicians are trained abroad, principally in Italy. The chief sources of advice and material assistance are Italy, the United States, and West Germany. An Italian army adviser assists in Darawishta training.

D. Air Force

The Somali National Army Air Force (SNAAF), with a strength of about 300, was organized in 1962 as a branch of the SNA. Its mission is to support ground forces in the maintenance of internal and border security, but current capabilities are limited by an insufficient number of aircraft and trained personnel and by shortages in replacement parts and fuel. Prior to the Soviet agreement Somalia had about 15 old US, UK, and Italian aircraft.

Since late 1964 flight training and supervision, as well as schooling for mechanics and other support personnel, have been undertaken in large part by the USSR. Because of low educational and skill levels, the attrition rate for SNAAF cadets in the Soviet Union has been high, and many graduates are unable to maintain their proficiency when they return to Somalia. Of some 30 pilots who recently returned from the USSR, only two were able to qualify on jet aircraft and eight on conventional aircraft during a refresher training program conducted by Soviet advisers.

The SNAAF has about 25 aircraft, of which only seven are known to be operationally assigned. These include two C-47 transports, two Vampire T-55 trainers, and three Helio H-395 Courier utility aircraft. The unassigned aircraft include

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three Soviet MIG-15 jet fighters which are being used for training. Some of the 40 cadets now in the USSR probably are training on MIG-17 fighters. The Soviet military assistance agreement probably includes the provision of one squadron of about 15 MIG-15's or MIG-17's before 1970. Some MIG-17's have also been delivered.

E. Navy

The Somali navy has been recently organized under Soviet supervision as an element of the SNA. Operations are centered at the port of Berbera which is being developed by the Soviets under the 1961 economic aid agreement. Somali naval capabilities are currently insignificant. There are four boats of Soviet design: two mechanized landing craft (LCM) of the "T-4" class and two patrol craft (YP) of the "Poluchat-1" class. Four additional patrol craft are to be delivered, probably before 1970. About 125 personnel are in training, most of them in the USSR, and some Soviet advisors are working with the naval recruits at Berbera.

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X. Survival Factors

A. General

Survival in Somalia depends on one's knowledge of the water supply and the people. Regional and seasonal differences in the location of both water and people, which may be strongly modified by recent rainfall abnormalities, greatly affect anyone's chances of success. Food is scarce, even for the local population. Without the help of the local population survival would be extremely difficult, but with their assistance at least the basic physical needs could probably be met. Recent political and paramilitary events and the affiliations of the assisting group largely determine the degree of cooperation shown a stranger.

The relatively flat terrain throughout most of Somalia would not be a serious barrier to movement of small groups on foot. However, the mountains of the north are extremely difficult to cross except through one of the three passes, and the two rivers in the south may be dangerous if not impossible to cross when in flood. Watercourses that are customarily dry are also a potential hazard, for they can be treacherous because of the rapidity with which they flood after a rain.

B. Water and People

By far the most important consideration is the availability of water. Because of the continually high temperatures a walking man perspires freely in every month of the year, even in the northern mountains, and requires at least a gallon of water per day to continue to move about freely. The usual sources of water -- wells, boreholes, surface pools, and the two rivers -- are meager even in the rainy seasons (April-May and October-November) of most years, and as long as these sources contain any water they are used by a permanent or nomadic population. All water must be considered contaminated and should be treated chemically or boiled. During the dry seasons (December-March and June-September) the smaller sources dry up, especially those in northern Somalia, and force their users to seek more reliable sources, most of which are in the south. Under these conditions no watering place is left unattended for long, and securing water without detection by the local inhabitants is virtually impossible. Abnormal climatic conditions can modify drastically the customary regimes of water and people. In 1961 a flood destroyed the food crops of an estimated 100,000 persons living in the Giuba and Scebeli River basins.

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The drought of 1965 in northeastern Somalia killed off some three-fourths of the cattle, sheep, and goats of that area and drove many destitute nomads into the towns.

If it is possible to obtain water from a solar still or other independent source and thus avoid the usual watering places and the people, an outsider's ease and flexibility of movement would be greatly increased. This advantage applies particularly to northern Somalia in the dry seasons, when many nomads have moved south and those remaining must stay close to the few available watering places. Conversely, the advantage of an independent water supply is least in the south in the wet seasons.

It is difficult to avoid contact with people in Somalia. Even in areas of the north that are remote from roads, waterholes, and flocks, curious natives may appear when least expected. They are usually friendly to a Westerner, although they are basically antiforeign. Their outlook is generally conditioned by the current state of Somali nationalist agitation. They have little respect for international borders and may not even know their approximate location. As of mid-1966, secessionists from the Northern Frontier District of Kenya were located in 10 camps in Somalia near the Kenya border. (When food and arms are available the secessionists return to their tribal area in Kenya and attack government installations.) A traveler on foot in the bush could avoid people and might find easier walking for a few miles along one of the many "shot lines" of Somalia. "Shot lines" are narrow, absolutely straight clearings made by Western oil companies in testing for oil. They avoid villages and habitations of any sort. A traveler should realize that news of his contact with local people anywhere probably will spread quickly and will soon reach one of the 81 Somali police posts. All such posts are equipped with good radio communications.

C. Food

Little information is available on living off the land in Somalia. North of the Scebeli River only a highly experienced individual could obtain food and avoid detection for an extended period. South of the Scebeli the vegetation is heavier and there is probably more small game, such as guinea fowl, rabbit, dik-dik, and Speke gazelle, than in the north; but there are also more people. Fishing offers fairly good possibilities to a person near the two rivers or the coast, partly because most Somalis are not fond of fish. Rock lobsters can be picked up from the reefs at night at secluded spots along the coast. Stealing planted crops or animals on the hoof

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anywhere in Somalia would probably result in detection by dogs, children, or owners who are ever conscious of their meager food supplies.

D. Natural Dangers

An adequate defense is necessary against strong sunlight, high temperatures, and hot, drying winds. A complete covering of light clothing, including full-length trousers, sleeves, socks, and hat, is desirable and also provides protection against insects, thorns, and blowing sand. Along the immediate coast the humidity may be uncomfortably high, even in the heat of the day. The hardest time of year is probably the northern spring and summer (April through September), which starts off with lifeless air and thunderstorms over most of Somalia and develops into the hot, dry, southwest monsoon.

At night, living in the open presents few problems. Sleeping on the bare ground with very little covering and without a shelter is customary for natives and Westerners. Rarely do prowling animals disturb a camp unless wounded or very hungry, and a circle of thorn brush offers considerable protection from them. Insects are numerous near water, but they are not prevalent enough in dry places to be bothersome. The danger from poisonous snakes (Somalia has 17 varieties) is much less than supposed, night or day; an American who recently spent 4 years in Somalia and lived much of the time in the open saw only two poisonous snakes while he was there.

E. Medical Factors

Medical and health conditions in the Somali Republic are very poor due to a critical shortage of medical workers and supplies and to a reluctance on the part of the native population to observe sanitary measures and to participate in medical programs. Many infectious diseases are therefore rampant which otherwise could be brought under control.

The principal diseases to be encountered and other pertinent data are tabulated in paragraph F.

The following points will be of use in operations in the Somali Republic:

1. In order to avoid infection with schistosomiasis (blood fluke disease), do not enter water infested with snails.

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2. Filter and boil all water for 20 minutes. Chemical treatment of water is a secondary method. Cook all foods thoroughly and eat them while they are hot. Clean and scald all fresh fruits and vegetables, or, after cleaning, soak in chemically treated water.

3. Take care when camping or operating in areas containing domestic animals; many of these carry diseases transmissible to man.

4. The incidence of malaria is discontinuous due to geographic barriers. It is seasonal and follows periods of heavy rains. Malaria is transmitted from the valleys to the mountains up to heights of 7,000 feet. The incidence is relatively low above 4,500 feet.

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~~SECRET~~F. Diseases of Importance in the Somali Republic

Carrier	Disease Transmitted	Distribution	Prevention	Treatment**	Comments
Tick	Typhus*	Sporadic	DDT powder in clothing	Chloromycetin	
	Epidemic relapsing fever	Widespread	DDT powder in clothing	Aureomycin	
	Boutonneuse fever	Widespread	DDT, benzyl benzoate in clothing	Aureomycin	
Mosquito	Dengue fever*	Widespread	Mosquito repellent	Bed rest	
	Malaria - particularly P. falciparum*	Widespread	Mosquito repellent plus antimalarial prophylactic tablets (primaquine or chloroguanide)	Chloroguanide, chloroquine diphosphate or quinine	Worst variety of malaria caused by P. falciparum (treated most effectively by quinine)
	Filariasis*	Widespread, particularly in the south	Mosquito repellent	Hetrazan	Can produce elephantiasis
	Yellow fever	Widespread	Mosquito repellent, inoculation	Essentially none	
Flies	Skin tumors	Along rivers	Fly repellent	Suramin	A filarial disease called onchocerciasis

*Of particular importance to US personnel.

**The term essentially none, under treatment, refers to "in the field" management of the disease.~~SECRET~~

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Carrier	Disease Transmitted	Distribution	Prevention	Treatment**	Comments
Flies (Cont)	Sandfly fever*	Widespread	Fly repellent	Essentially none	
	Filariasis*	Widespread	Fly repellent	Hetrazan	Can produce elephantiasis
	Kala azar*	In mountains	Fly repellent	Neostibosan	Also called visceral leishmaniasis
Snails	Blood fluke diseases*	Widespread	Keep out of snail-infested waters or wear protective clothing	Tartar emetic	Called schistosomiasis or bilharziasis
Lice	Classical typhus	Widespread	Inoculation	Chloromycetin	
	Epidemic relapsing fever*	Widespread	DDT powder in clothing	Chloromycetin	
Mites	Scrub typhus*	Widespread	DDT powder in clothing	Chloromycetin	
Fleas	Murine typhus	Widespread	Inoculation	Chloromycetin	
	Rat and dog tapeworm	Widespread	Insect repellent	Atabrine	
Unclean water or food	Hookworm* Roundworm*	Widespread in the south	Wearing shoes, using clean food and water	Tetrachloroethylene or piperazine	
	Tapeworm*	Widespread	Cleanliness, well-cooked food	Quinacrine	

*Of particular importance to US personnel.

**The term essentially none, under treatment, refers to "in the field" management of the disease.~~SECRET~~

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Carrier	Disease Transmitted	Distribution	Prevention	Treatment	Comments
Unclean water or food (Cont)	Typhoid and paratyphoid fevers*	Widespread	Inoculation		
	Dysentery (bacillary)	Widespread	Clean food and water, sulfaguanidine if exposed	Aureomycin or sulfadiazine	Very prevalent
	Amebic dysentery	Widespread	Clean food and water	Diodoquin	
Infected Humans	Meningitis*	Widespread	Prophylactic doses of penicillin or sulfonamides during epidemics	Penicillin or sulfadiazine	Meningococcal meningitis
	Yaws	Widespread	General cleanliness, penicillin	Penicillin	
	Syphilis	Widespread	General cleanliness, penicillin	Penicillin	

*Of particular importance to US personnel.

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READING LIST

1. CIA. NIS 55, Sec 21, Military and Geographic Regions, May 1960. C. NO FOREIGN DISSEM.
2. _____. NIS 55, Sec 23, Weather and Climate, May 1965. C. NO FOREIGN DISSEM.
3. _____. NIS 55, Sec 24, Topography, Feb 1960. C. NO FOREIGN DISSEM.
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6. Navy, ONI. Poisonous Snakes of the World -- A Manual for Use by US Amphibious Forces, ONI Study 3-62, 30 Jun 1962. U.
7. Simmons, J. S. and T. F. Whayne, G. W. Anderson, and H. M. Horack, Global Epidemiology: A Geography of Disease and Sanitation, Vol II, London: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1951. 652pp. U.

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APPENDIX

RECOMMENDED MAPS

Maps and charts of Kenya have been published primarily by the British or are based on British sources. Many have been reproduced in quantity by US agencies. The maps and charts listed below are suggested for general use and are available at the CIA Map Library. A detailed discussion of mapping and charting is contained in Chapter IX, Map and Chart Appraisal, of National Intelligence Survey 55, Ethiopia, Eritrea, and the Somalilands, published in October 1958.

TOPOGRAPHIC MAPS

1. East Africa, 1:250,000; US Army Map Service; Series Y503; 1963-64. Six sheets cover the Somalia - Kenya border west of 42°E.
2. East Africa, 1:500,000; US Army Map Service; Series Y401 (GSGS 4355); 1942-58. Sixteen sheets cover Somalia south of 08°N.
3. World, 1:500,000; US Army Map Service; Series 1404 (GSGS 4830), 1959-60, boundaries 1964. Seven sheets cover Somalia north of 08°N.
4. World, 1:1,000,000; US Army Map Service; Series 1301; 1946-63. Eight sheets cover Somalia.

DRAINAGE MAP

British Somaliland, 1:100,000; British Directorate of Military Survey; GSGS 4868; 1957. Sixty-seven sheets cover former British Somaliland. Drainage, road pattern, and place names are detailed.

AIR CHARTS

1. USAF Operational Navigation Chart (ONC), 1:1,000,000; US Aeronautical Chart and Information Center; Sheet K-6; base 1961, air information June 1963. This sheet covers Somalia north of 08°N.
2. World Aeronautical Chart (WAC), 1:1,000,000; US Aeronautical Chart and Information Center; bases 1951-65, air information 1954-65. Five sheets cover Somalia south of 08°N.

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TOWN PLANS AND PORT PLANS

1. Mogadiscio, 1:12,500; US Army Map Service; Series Y921;
1963.

2.

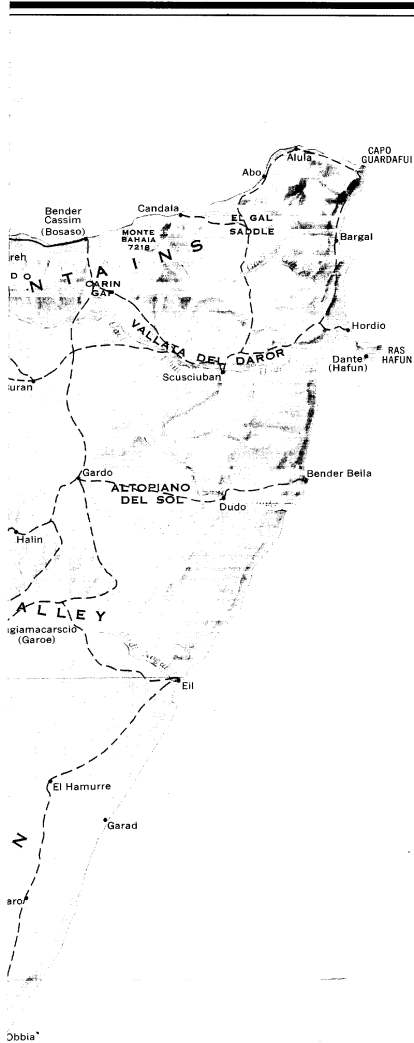
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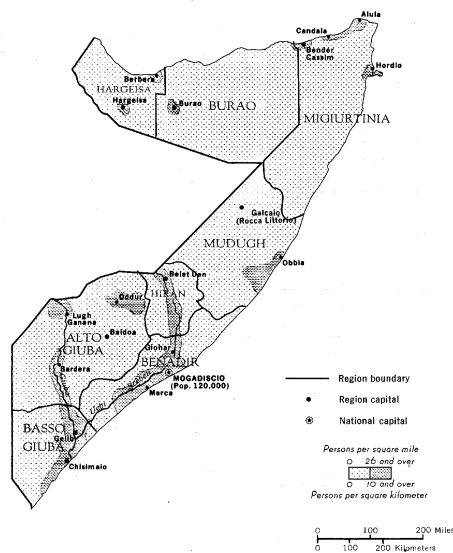


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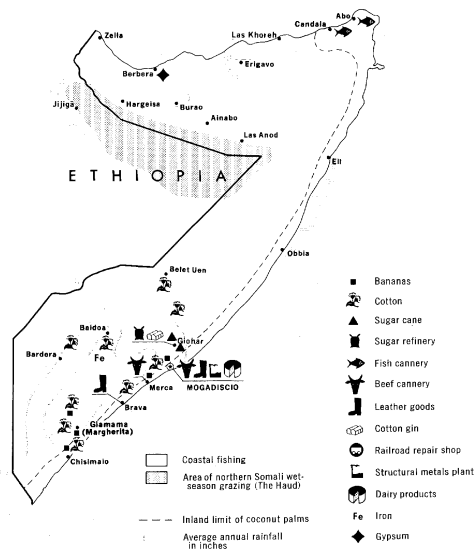
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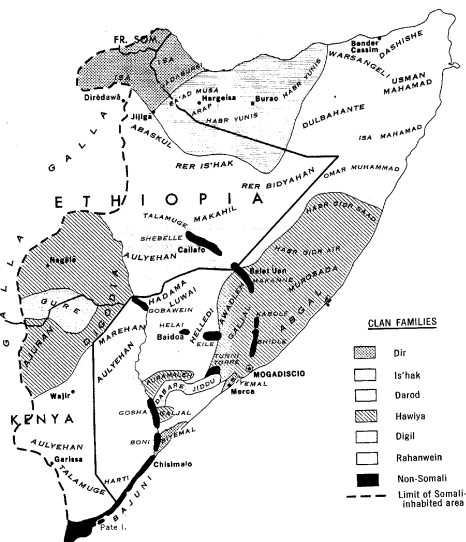
POPULATION AND ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS



ECONOMIC ACTIVITY



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